

Contemporary Psychology

A JOURNAL OF REVIEWS

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Book Reviewing and Language Barriers

By HENRY P. DAVID

Lafayette Clinic and Wayne University

As LOUTTIT (4) has observed, there are at least two objectives for the publication of scientific literature: (a) encouraging the interchange of data and ideas among interested scientists and (b) permanent recording of these ideas and data. With the appearance of *Contemporary Psychology*, dedicated to book reviews and thus to the interchange of ideas, this becomes a propitious time to reconsider ways in which such interchange has been fostered in the past. The emphasis of the present discussion is on international scientific communication across linguistic frontiers, the extent to which books have been critically reviewed or briefly noted in 18 American and 10 European journals of psychology and psychiatry, published in 1940, 1950, and 1954.

In selecting journal volumes for this survey, several matters were considered. It was believed that 1940 was fairly representative of the years before World War II and that 1950 probably reflected the postwar slump, whereas 1954 was the most recent complete volume available at the time of the study, which was completed while the author was a member of the staff of the Western Psychiatric Institute at the University of Pittsburgh's School of Medicine.

Half of the 18 American journals are

psychological, and four of these nine are sponsored by the APA. The other nine American journals are psychiatric, five of them psychoanalytic in orientation. Of the 10 European journals two are British, two French, two German, two Swiss, one Dutch, and one International. The two Swiss journals are predominantly psychological; the eight others are more psychiatric, with two of these primarily psychoanalytic. Since for many European journals, 1940 volumes were not available, only 1950 and 1954 figures are presented. See the footnote to the Table.

In classifying reviews, the following criteria were used. A review of a translated volume was credited to the original author's native-language area. Reviews of books published in the United States by immigrant authors were counted as American, unless they were translations of works previously published in another language. The length of reviews was disregarded and notices were tabulated whenever they consisted of at least some comment in addition to the book listing. The data presented deal solely with reviews, disregarding the frequency with which a specific book may have been reviewed in this country or abroad.

Comparison by years in the Table indicates that the 18 American journals

devoted a greater percentage of reviews to books by non-native authors in 1940 than in either 1950 or 1954. While there was a very slight percentage increase from 1950 to 1954, one tending to suggest that the trend might again be on the upgrade, only 8 of the 18 journals published more reviews of foreign authors in 1954 than in 1950.

Inspection of the percentage of reviews devoted to non-native authors in the American journals shows that non-APA sponsored journals of psychology and psychiatry have generally been far more attentive to non-Americans than have APA journals. In 1954 the best showings for foreign reviewing were made, in their respective groups, by the *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology* (14%), *Journal of Projective Techniques* (22%), and the *American Journal of Psychiatry* (29%). As also appears in the Table, the 10 European journals devoted about half their reviews to non-native authors, approximately one-third of them American.

At first glance it seems that European journals are doing a far better job of reviewing non-native authors than American journals. Interpretation of the percentages, however, depends on the total number of books annually submitted for review. Inspection of the

A SUMMARY TABLE OF AUTHORSHIP OF BOOKS REVIEWED IN AMERICAN AND EUROPEAN JOURNALS OF PSYCHOLOGY AND PSYCHIATRY DURING 1940, 1950, AND 1954

Journals ^b	Total Number of Book Reviews			Reviews of Native Authors			Reviews of British (American) Authors ^a			Reviews of Translations			Reviews of other Non-Native Authors			% of Reviews Devoted to Non-Native Authors		
	1940	1950	1954	1940	1950	1954	1940	1950	1954	1940	1950	1954	1940	1950	1954	1940	1950	1954
4 APA Journals.....	125	237	182	108	224	165	6	5	11	6	5	4	5	3	2	14	5	9
5 Non-APA Journals.....	150	201	122	107	170	104	13	10	9	9	10	7	21	11	2	29	15	15
9 Psychiatric Journals.....	730	745	805	495	618	657	47	48	59	42	33	45	146	46	44	32	17	18
18 American Total.....	1005	1183	1109	710	1012	926	66	63	79	57	48	56	172	60	48	29	15	17
10 European Journals.....	—	379	397	—	177	173	—	55	86	—	13	22	—	134	116	—	53	56

^a British authors reviewed in American journals; American authors in European journals.

^b AMERICAN JOURNALS (18)

APA journals (4):

J. abnorm. soc. Psychol.
J. appl. Psychol.
J. consult. Psychol.
Psychol. Bull.

Non-APA journals (5):

Amer. J. Psychol.
J. gen. Psychol.
J. soc. Psychol.
J. clin. Psychol.
J. proj. Tech.

Psychiatric journals (9):

Amer. J. Psychiat.
J. nerv. ment. Dis.
Psychiat. Quart.
Amer. J. Orthopsychiat.
Psychiatry
Psychoanal. Quart.
Psychoanal. Rev.
Amer. J. Psychother.
Bull. Menninger Clin.

EUROPEAN JOURNALS (10)

Brit. J. med. Psychol.
J. ment. Sci.
L'Encéphale
L'Evol. psychiat.
Mschr. Psychiat.
Psyche, Heidel.
Z. diagnost. Psychol.
Schweiz. Z. Psychol.
Folia psychiat. neurol. neurochir. Neerl.
Int. J. Psycho-Anal.

Table suggests that the American journals devoted 183 reviews to foreign authors, whereas the European journals gave only 173 reviews to their native authors. This does not mean that American editors reviewed more European books than were published, for the tabulations deal only with reviews and have not been corrected for duplication. Interpretation is further complicated by comparing 18 American journals with 10 European journals; also, each American volume publishes on the average about one-third more reviews.

Considering the large number of American publications submitted to American editors, the percentage of reviews they devote to foreign authors may be quite proportionate. European editors can review more foreign authors because the number of such books far exceeds those published in their own countries. Although the percentage of reviews of American authors in European journals is high, the actual number constituting this percentage is quite low. This is particularly apparent when the total number of reviews of American authors in European journals is compared with the total number of reviews of American authors in any of

the three American journal groups. Thus the percentages alone do not tell the entire story.

Unfortunately there are no precise data on how many European books are actually sent to American review editors, or vice versa. Figures on publication trends in different languages, based on material from the *Psychological Abstracts* (2, 3, 4), are not quite applicable since journal articles and books were combined and British publications were pooled with other English-language references. It is this writer's impression, however, that there has been little systematic effort to review pertinent European publications.

There are, of course, other intangibles to the problem of fostering the interchange of ideas by means of book reviewing across language barriers. Interests of review editors, limited space, and availability of appropriate multilingual reviewers have to be considered. There is also the factor of provincialism, a bias not confined to either side of the ocean. In the United States there seems to be some belief that everything Americans need to know is published in English and that they have little to learn from those not writing their own language. It is easy

to ignore references that make further demands on already limited time for reading or reviewing. This limitation was noted by Drever (1) in his study of author citations in the varied chapters of the 1955 *Annual Review of Psychology*.

To be sure, there are not only language barriers but also attitudinal obstacles. American psychologists are isolated, not only by oceans and language differences, but also in a way most large majorities are isolated, by a sense of self-importance and self-sufficiency. America can scarcely afford the provincialism of enormousness; compared with Europe, its psychology has a certain sameness, a pattern already referred to as "the American contribution." There are, no doubt, certain advantages to American cooperativeness and uniformity, but, like any majority, let us beware of complacency. Many foreign psychologists are working in a meaningful and significant manner; and sometimes they write books about what they are doing. American psychologists ought to be informed, ought to know what is going on, regardless of criticisms or evaluations they may eventually make. It is not likely that psychology in the United States, or

anywhere else, can advance as far as it might without some reference to contributions from other lands.

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The Guerdon of Adoption

Louise Raymond

Adoption and After

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955. Pp. 238. \$3.00.

By MARIE SKODAK

Flint, Michigan

THIS CHARMINGLY written book is primarily addressed to intelligent, conscientious couples who are contemplating an adoption, are in the midst of one, or have friends whose adoption problems they wish to understand. The social worker, psychologist, or P.T.A. speaker who reads the book, perhaps initially misled a little by the title, will find in it sound, straightforward answers to the questions which parents ask. Written at a reading level well within the grasp of adults whose academic history may comprise some semesters of high school, the basic ideas and the apt illustrations arouse the admiration of a professional. Few would have the journalistic talents of Mrs. Raymond, and fewer still would be able to convey her warmth of feeling toward children and their eager parents, or her compassion for the heartaches encountered in growing up, which are so often highlighted for the adopted child.

Psychologists and other professional people may easily pass by this undistinguished looking volume. It does not present a history of adoptions, or current, past, or projected statistics. It refers in brief footnotes to but a fraction of the many articles on adoptions, legal processes, foster home and foster child characteristics. The few serious studies of mental growth, personality development and effects of maternal deprivation are tucked away between the lines. Fascinating as these may be to the initiated, foster-parents-to-be ask instead, "Why is it better to work with an agency than some friend-of-a-friend?" and "Is it safe to adopt a baby?" The slender evidence from research on this topic is ably and succinctly presented. Nor does the volume present the kind of "and after" which professional workers might have hoped for and which is sadly needed—the follow-up of adoption families in respect of emotional development, attitudes, personality problems and family dynamics. It is clearly not Mrs. Raymond's intention to cover these technical matters. As Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg says in the foreword, the book undertakes to deal with "the subtleties of day-by-day adjustment" in the adoptive family. This goal it achieves most successfully.

The two introductory chapters present clearly and fairly the processes in evaluating adoption applicants, the bases for the various areas of inquiry, some of the reasons why adoption requests are difficult to grant, and the type of care which the child will possibly have received before placement. For those aspirants who may not be so fortunate as to become adoptive parents, there are suggestions and sympathetic interpretations.

The remaining chapters follow the development of the child from placement into adolescence. It is difficult to think of a problem which the author has not anticipated—beginning, as she does, with the child's initial days of grieving over separation from the original boarding home and adjustment to his new parents, continuing through the problems of death and divorce in the foster family, and circling back to the need for acceptance of adoption and for never-faltering honesty and integrity in deal-

ing with the child. The book emphasizes the fact that the developmental stages experienced by adopted children are the same as for all children. Eating, sleeping, and toilet habits; getting along with the neighbors; what to do about pets and homework; acting up and temper tantrums—none are different in the fundamentals. The overtones, on the other hand, are always different because in addition to the normal growth and adjustment problems, the adopted child—and his parents—have had experiences which were deeply significant and which will always play some part in their lives. For the child the experience of separation, the fear of being unworthy or abandoned, in some instances a deep anxiety about his 'own parents' aggravate the normal difficulties of self-acceptance and the weaning from parental authority. For the parents the basic threat of inadequacy resulting from childlessness, the desire to be 'perfect parents' and the lurking fears which provoke overprotection and anxiety about the various evidences of increasing independence; all these color the problems normal to natural parents who cope with them with more assurance if not more skill. The author's sympathetic, unsentimental but good-humored and witty handling of these potentially difficult issues will be a relief to many a harassed parent—and not of adopted children alone.

The book provides for parents a constant warm support toward a relaxed self-acceptance which in time will permit an acceptance of the child 'as he is.' The talisman for adoptive parents, "Always remember he's your own—and never forget he's adopted," and its illustration in many daily life problems, should be of help to parents made tense by the barrage of advice and criticism with which press and radio engulf them.

Those persons who have occasion to consult with adoptive parents or applicants, or whose clientele include adopted children, or who meet the specific questions of child study groups, P.T.A.'s, and the nontechnical public, will be grateful for the well-expressed applications of sound theory. Professional readers can find elsewhere the research findings and basic philosophy which undergird this book.

What Is Thinking Like?

Donald M. Johnson

The Psychology of Thought and Judgment

New York: Harper & Brothers, 1955. Pp. x + 515. \$6.00.

By DAVID RAPAPORT

Austen Riggs Center

THIS VOLUME's aim is to organize present knowledge and to serve as a guide to future research (p. x) in the psychology of thinking and judgment. The program is limited to experimental evidence, excluding "infrahuman problem solving, autistic thought and fantasy, and developmental trends" (pp. ix f.). It includes, however, as a novelty, material from the study of individual differences in abilities and of judgment.

The extensive material covered (746 references), the emphasis on method (including the discussion of a broad variety), and the novelties mentioned (including some "structural" considerations), are the book's assets.

On the debit side: this volume has no point of view, and its organization is arbitrary, unbalanced, repetitious, and disjointed. (Five of its chapters are preparatory, pp. 1-145; five are devoted to the topic proper, pp. 146-389; and three more hang on.) Neither chapters nor volume have summary or conclusions. The triple-layered, unnumbered subdivision of chapters throughout 500 small and rather crowded pages prevents easy orientation, and the table of contents gives only chapter pages and first-order subdivisions. The writing is dull, uneven, and at times downright poor, studded with the dubious ornaments of chapter mottoes ("Seeing is believing") and inflated pronouncements ("This volume is concerned with the most sophisticated, abstract, civilized and specialized things that people do.")

THE BOOK invites comparison with several recent publications on thinking: Hebb (1949), Humphrey (1951), Vinacke (1952), and chapters in several recent textbooks (Helson's *Theoretical Foundations*, 1953; Stevens' *Handbook*, 1951; Osgood's *Method and Theory*, 1953;

Woodworth and Schlosberg's *Experimental Psychology*, 1954.) Piaget's six recently translated volumes and the present reviewer's source book (1951) fall outside its stated program.

Hebb's volume has a central point of view ("Thought . . . [is a] process that is not fully controlled by environmental stimulation and yet cooperates closely with the stimulation," p. xvi) developed into a theory by carefully marshaled evidence. Humphrey's is a judicious, penetrating, analytic volume which traces several major historical problems of the psychology of thinking and adduces evidence only to reach, or to point toward, a decision on them. Vinacke's tidy survey is neither exhaustive nor particularly penetrating, nor without gaps. Yet, not limited by a point of view or to experimental evidence, it freely follows the rambling outlines of the field. The scope of the textbook chapters is limited, centering mostly on problem solving (insight-learning controversy) or concept formation or both.

The present volume has neither a selective point of view, nor a problem-centered analysis, nor tidiness and broad range; and, while it too defines thinking as problem solving and deals both with the learning-insight controversy and concept formation, these are not its main arteries nor are they brought into sharp relief.

What then is the vision from which this volume arises?

The new emphasis on judgment and individual differences points to the answer. The vision seems to come from "applied psychology," from the construction and study of judgment scales and mental tests. The references to the author's publications attest to this (they cluster in the chapters on judgment). The psychology of thinking is used here to link the author's major interests. The search for just such links has always been

a fertile source of new insights in science. Here too it leads to important conclusions: (1) the psychology of judgment is part of the psychology of thinking; (2) the isolation of the experimental psychology of thinking from the psychology of individual differences in ability, is detrimental ("a tragedy") to the field: "One of the major purposes of the present work is an integration of these two streams of progress" (p. 44).

This vision, however, this attempt at double integration, fails to inspire or to shape the volume. Instead of providing a pervasive point of view, it merely adds more data. Instead of lending a cohesive form, it adds isolated sections and chapters. It brings no integration of the psychology of thinking. In fact, the psychology of thinking presented here looks like a hastily contrived vehicle for the author's diverse interests.

TO DRAW the line between making value judgments and becoming judgmental is always precarious. In writing about books and in judging relatively new ventures it becomes more so. Treating the psychology of thinking as a unified field and including "individual differences" and judgment in it, are new ventures. Thus this failure at integration is perhaps understandable and forgivable. Not to recognize the validity of the vision as a human achievement would be unfair, as it would be not to acknowledge that the juxtaposition of experimental results and individual differences, as well as of problem solving and judgment, is food for thought. If the selection of this food is indiscriminating and its preparation unpalatable, at least we can appreciate the prodigious work of compilation and the few threads which tie the "individual difference" sections to the 'experimental' ones (e.g., pp. 83 and 92).

But it is hard to overlook the disregard of organic and functional pathology, particularly Scheerer's (1946) and Hebb's contributions. Both made a definite attempt to link differences in individual ability to the psychology of thinking. Rapaport, Schafer, and Gill's *Diagnostic Psychological Testing* (1945-46)—whatever shortcomings it had—also made such a deliberate attempt. Consideration of these might have saved the volume

from the overwhelmingly statistical view of "individual differences." Pathology is nature's experiment—it often isolates variables of which the experimenter had not even dreamt. As for factor analysis: is following statistics to identify the factors isolated a 'better' method than using experiment or statistics or both to test assumptions derived from observation? Or is there any evidence that it is easier to build a bridge between a factorial study of individual differences and the experimental psychology of thinking than between the latter and experimental study of individual differences? (Cf. Lewin, 1927, 1935; Klein, 1949, 1954.)

ON THE positive side, we can appreciate the volume's stress on the instruments of thought that do not in themselves solve problems but are indispensable for problem solving and thinking (pp. 126 ff., pp. 222 ff.). In this light the discussion of vocabulary and of the relations between words, concepts, and their relations, and of search models, gains a new and instructive emphasis which derives mostly from tests (of association, of concept formation). There is an awareness here (p. 228) that thinking is made possible by the fixed units at its disposal. (Otherwise it would become a croquet game with flamingos for mallets and hedgehogs for balls.)

But again our appreciation is marred. These instruments and their relations are presented as the contents and arrangements of a storehouse (p. 128). There is no reference to Bartlett (1932), whose schema concept was an attempt to deal with such instruments of thought, combatting the inadequacies of storehouse conceptions. The repeated—but unexplained—phrases "wheels-within-wheels character of thinking" and "retroflex character of judgment" do not make up for these inadequacies.

The origin and function of these instrumental structures are relegated here to the psychology of learning and skills (p. 222). But can learning theory account for the survival and utilization of these instrumental structures, not to speak of their remolding in the course of utilization? While Hilgard (1948) is not quite sure and Mowrer (1950), as well

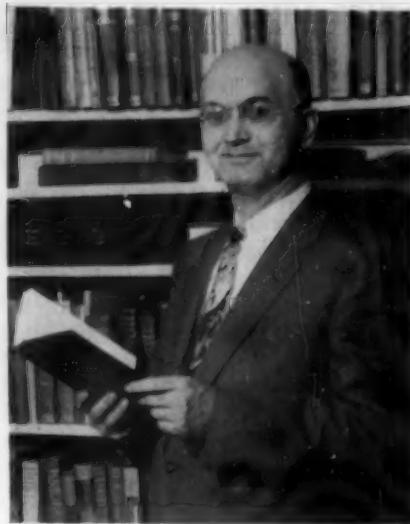
as Dollard and Miller (1950), take great pains to explain how learning theory might do so, this volume takes the positive answer for granted: but a theory of thinking cannot take this for granted. Thinking is not possible without fixed units; yet it is equally impossible to explain the remolding of these units in the course of the thought process without also attributing flexibility to them. The ability concepts *rigidity* and *flexibility* (pp. 212 ff.) do not provide a specific explanation and there is no mention here of any theory which does attempt to meet this problem (e.g., Hebb's "assemblies" and "phase sequences," or Piaget's work of the last twenty years).

Yet the book's stress on these long-neglected instrumental structures is important. Dr. Johnson points out that psychoanalysis was not interested in them (p. 13). Noting reinforcement theory's similar lack, in contrast to Gordon Allport's persistent interest and that of the workers in psychoanalytic ego psychology, could have provided an opportunity to explore the fate of thinking, buffeted as it has been between motivational and structural theories. It might have even shed light on the revival of this interest within reinforcement theory (e.g., Osgood, 1953, 1955) and outside it (e.g., Bruner 1955; Klein 1949, 1954) under the influence of ego psychology and information theory.

WITH REDUCED expectations we can appreciate the inclusion of the psychology of judgment in the psychology of thinking. We note the awareness that the degree of similarity between judgments in life and judgments in the laboratory "is unknown" (p. 282), and that the judgments studied are unidimensional (p. 328). We share the hope that the general principles arrived at will have some applicability to life's judgments (p. 282). We read with interest the assertion that the experimental problem of judgment and the ability termed "good judgment" are related (p. 318).

But beyond these points our appreciation diminishes:

Judgment appears here as one of the three "principal thought processes: . . . preparation, production and judgment" (p. 51), as though the meaning—if any—of the "wheels-within-wheels



DONALD M. JOHNSON

character of thinking" (p. 284) did not imply that the selection of means and directions involves judgments at *every* point of thinking.

Judgment here is "a kind of problem the solution to which is a response in one of several categories [yes or no, high or low, p. 292] prepared in advance of the judgment" (p. 284). Though we hear that judges at times prepare new categories in the course of thinking, the impression is overwhelming that we learn about judges acting on the applied psychologist's scales, rather than about judgments made in the course of thinking. How man comes by and uses (deliberately or unwittingly) apparently unidimensional scales of values and magnitudes, is a striking instance of the instrumental-structure problem (cf. Piaget)—but this matter is not explicit in the volume, nor is it the sole problem of judgment.

Judgment here is "by definition . . . not an automatic reflex" (p. 325). How proudly—or blindly—"rationalistic" can a statement be? How logical: thinking has a "preparation" and a "production" phase and it culminates in a judgment which settles matters, presumably deliberately (p. 282). A lost driver makes a judgment and, "set thusly, his preparation has eliminated cross-country travel . . . spending the night on the road," etc. Some will say, "What a pity that life is not so simple"; others will say, "What luck that it is not so boring." Surely judgment can be defined to exclude everything "automatic," (e.g., by refe-

gating it to habit) and to do away with the judgment versus inclination problem. But will the generalizations derived be relevant to life?

Judgment is a part of the psychology of thinking, because every proposition about judgments states *how* the thought process cooperates with stimulation—to use Hebb's phrase—and every proposition about "good judgment" states *how well* it cooperates. Propositions of the first kind apply to every (not only to the consummatory) phase of thinking; propositions of the second kind are relative to the personality of the thinker.

Yet even this compilation and juxtaposition may prove helpful at a time when the average psychologist pays no more attention to what Brentano, Meinong, Buehler, Freud, Schilder, Lewin, and Piaget contributed to this problem than does the present volume.

THE FIVE chapters discussing the volume's stated plan (p. 51) divide into one on preparation, two on production, and two on judgment. Is this veritable Procrustean bed the price paid for including, but failing to integrate, judgment and individual differences? Or is there more to it?

The relation of reason and fact is not simpler in psychology than in any other field: that which is logical is by no means always psychological. This volume's avowed interest is in "the most abstract and civilized things people do," and it takes these things to be problem solving and judgment (p. 20). It deliberately excludes "autistic thought, fantasy, and developmental trends," and by default it excludes pathology, ethnopsychology, wit, humor, and the like, all of which link rational thought to its irrational matrix (Freud, Levy-Bruehl, H. Werner, Piaget; and for still others see the reviewer's source book). It is no surprise that it treats thinking as a logical pursuit within an arbitrary logical framework. The treatment of motivation seems to be of the same "logical" cast. Motivations are notoriously the sources of the illogical in thinking (cf. Descartes, Hume). In this volume they get short shrift. "Physiological" motives are discarded and "social" motives accepted for thought; then "extrinsic motives" are

discarded in favor of "intrinsic" ones (pp. 56 ff.). Those familiar with the difficulties of motivation theories in accounting for the logic of thinking, and conversant with both Allport's attempts and those of the workers in psychoanalytic ego psychology to meet this difficulty, will follow these shifts with sympathy if not without apprehension. But when "intrinsic" motivations too are more or less abandoned and *The Dynamics of Thought* is discussed mainly in terms of sets (disregarding Allport's 1935, and Gibson's 1941, warnings), then it seems to be clear that motivations and the illogical just had to be eliminated. With them goes the, so far, most promising avenue of linking thought to personality and of keeping the door open for the understanding of pathology, dreams, projective techniques, and the like. The thinking *person* is reduced to an aggregate of 'abilities.' Behind this conception there lies something far worse and more deadening than partisanship for one trend of "applied psychology": it seems to be the product of narrowing specialization.

Even if this assessment of the vision, its validity and its execution is correct, it fails to resolve a lingering uneasiness.

How is a volume on thinking—published under the most reputable auspices—possible without touching on the essence of the contributions made by Lewin, H. Werner, Tolman, Brunswik, Piaget, and without mentioning Silberer, Schilder, Lashley, Heider, Hebb? How can such a volume ignore the ancestry of the psychology of thinking and judgment to the point that it contains (among the 746) less than a dozen foreign-language references?

Scrutiny of the volume alone is unlikely to answer these questions. There must be a social factor at work: something in the atmosphere of our psychological science that is, to say the least, co-responsible. Although this is not the place to diagnose this 'something,' an example of its self-perpetuating character may well be pointed out: will graduate students fed on such a treatment of the past and of the foreign-language literature take the Ph.D.'s historical and language requirements for anything more than a formality?



Readings for Educational Psychology

Arthur P. Coladore (Ed.)

Educational Psychology: A Book of Readings

New York: Dryden Press, 1955.
Pp. xvi + 656. \$3.90.

Jerome M. Seidman (Ed.)

Readings in Educational Psychology

Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1955.
Pp. xiv + 402. \$3.25.

By JOHN E. HORROCKS

Ohio State University

THE PAST several years have witnessed an unusual number of readings, collections aimed, usually, at the more elementary college courses in psychology. It was inevitable that the well-populated general course in educational psychology would be among those selected for such a venture. It is only surprising, in view of the prospective market, that until now no up-to-date books of readings in educational psychology have been available. Previous collections, like Pressey and Janney's, were compiled too many years ago to reflect present trends and interests in the area.

There is a difference of opinion as to the value of such collections. Some feel that compilations of readings discourage library work and are too often 'watered-down' versions that give a false impression of the material contained in the original articles. On the other hand, a well-organized book of readings can serve a useful purpose where library facilities are inadequate or where it is desired to supplement a regular text with a series of readings from widely scattered sources. Many libraries cannot afford the money or space for multiple copies of original sources necessary when assignments are made to large groups of students. Some readings, moreover, are not abbreviations of original sources, and sometimes a simplified or interpreted version of a research article is desirable for less advanced students. At any level, books of readings afford instructors an opportunity to

extend their courses to include research and other readings that cannot be included in detail in the ordinary textbook.

The problem of the readings collection is the double one of selection and of editorial comment or interpretation. The selection of readings in educational psychology poses a particularly difficult problem, since the parameters of the basic course are relatively undefined, as an examination of the elementary texts in the area attests. But both Coladarci and Seidman have chosen to make their selections comprehensive, with Seidman including the greater number of references. Both have grouped their selections under major categories, but Coladarci has added at the beginning of each selection a short editorial comment which serves as an orientation to the material to be discussed. It is the opinion of the reviewer that both texts would be improved by the addition of integrative editorial discussions at the beginning of each section of the selections.

Each collection represents a reasonable cross section of what is offered in various courses in educational psychology, although there is very little overlap between the two in the articles selected for inclusion. Some will feel that, comparatively, there is too much material in each book on topics such as the *The Class as a Group* and *Teachers' Perceptions of Pupil Behavior*, but these areas constitute an important part of the newer emphasis in educational psychology and should indeed be included.

The present reviewer believes that the most serious lack in both collections occurs in the materials on learning, particularly with reference to the specific school subjects. Such a de-emphasis on learning may reflect a present trend, but many of us still believe that subject-matter learning is the heart of educational psychology and teach our courses with that in mind.

Either collection should be a useful adjunct to a regular textbook and both are good examples of a reasonable approach to the problem of compiling a selection of readings.

Method in Social Science

Paul F. Lazarsfeld and Morris Rosenberg (Eds.)

The Language of Social Research

Glencoe: The Free Press, 1955. Pp. xiii + 590. \$6.75.

By ROBERT B. ZAJONC

University of Michigan

THE LAST decade has witnessed increasing improvements in the methods of social research. Experimental techniques, measurement methods, statistical procedures, and many other areas have undergone promising developments. Nevertheless, the social scientist cannot be satisfied with the present degree of his methodological sophistication. Many problems still remain unexplored, and for others only tentative answers are available. Important theoretical advancements are hampered by the lack of refined methods. Because the social scientist does not possess appropriate tools, numerous substantively significant and theoretically crucial hypotheses are placed in abeyance.

With the advances made in the various aspects of methodology there also arises a need for integration. At a certain point the developments in the different areas should be examined in an effort to seek some general principles which might give impetus to further refinements of available methods and lead to better solutions of methodological problems. A work which fills any of these lacunae would represent an important contribution. It was, therefore, with enthusiasm that this reviewer read the introduction to *The Language of Social Research*.

This volume was prepared in an attempt to present and illustrate general methodological principles in the social sciences. The editors point out that *methodology* should not be identified with *technology* or with *quantification*. Problems of specific research techniques or of quantification are peculiar to a given discipline. "The historian, the clinical psychologist, the linguist, need their own codification of procedures" (p. 7). The study of "methodology," however, points to the general assumptions underlying all processes of discovery and proof in the social sciences. Examination of these assumptions will reveal the "applicability

of [such processes] to a wide range of problems" cutting across interdisciplinary boundaries (p. 10). In fact, the general nature of methodology made it "very tempting for the editors of this reader to feature it as a contribution to the philosophy of social sciences" (p. 3).

The enthusiasm of this reviewer was, however, short-lived. Although the introductory remarks and the title of the volume suggest a contribution of very general scope and wide implications, we find that the range of methodological problems has been restricted, leaving scant basis for generalization. Originally this compendium was to consist of two parts, first, a presentation and discussion of general methodological principles, and then studies which illustrate and clarify these principles. The editors found, however, that "the number of studies making use of sophisticated research practices is far greater than the number of papers which articulate or codify or discuss the procedures themselves" (p. 4). Consequently, the volume now consists almost exclusively of reports of research, with the discussion of methods confined to brief remarks introducing the chapters.

Undeniably there should be more research than talk about research. It would be unhealthy if this were not so; yet there is little obligation to reproduce these proportions in a text on research methods. Despite the relative paucity of methodological papers there is certainly a sufficient number of them to fill a volume. In their absence a thorough exposition and examination of the methodological principles which the various studies are said to exemplify might have met some of the present needs of the field. It is regrettable that the editors have foregone either attempt.

The editors have expressly excluded from the compendium methodological problems arising during the process of collecting data, topics thoroughly covered in the literature, topics which "have not



yet been codified adequately at all," and papers requiring some mathematical training (p. 5). Thus, such methodological areas as experimental techniques, problems of sampling, observational methods, questionnaire construction, scaling procedures, measurement problems, and the like were not covered in *The Language*. The restrictions imposed on the volume will not be welcomed by the more demanding reader who, after exciting himself over the wide implications of the introductory remarks, finds that *The Language* is but a collection of studies which illustrate some techniques employed primarily in survey research.

The volume includes readings and some discussion on index construction, on what is referred to as "multivariate analysis," and on analysis of change. Other selections illustrate the employment of these techniques in the study of groups and in the analysis of action. The final section examines problems in the realm of "philosophy of social sciences."

LAZARSFELD and Rosenberg point out that one of the basic tasks of methodology is to translate concepts into empirical indices (p. 15). The crucial methodological tool in index construction is the notion of *property space*, developed by Lazarsfeld and presented by A. H. Barton in one of the selections. The process of constructing a property space consists of locating variables in geometrical space. Two ways of obtaining property space are spelled out: *reduction* and *subtraction*. In "reduction" a dimension is collapsed into fewer points, e.g., the dimension of political attitudes can be collapsed into two points, radicalism and conservatism. In "subtraction" the attribute is broken down into subclasses, component dimensions, or properties, to obtain finer discriminations. For example, social class might be broken down into components, like economic status, social position, ethnic origin, educational background, etc.

The section on index construction leaves many problems untouched. The technique stressed is actually well known and widely applied. There do not appear to be any important differences between the procedures called for by the concept of property space and those used in

preparing data for chi-square test, analysis of variance, or profile analysis. Considerably less emphasis is given to what, in the opinion of this reviewer, are much more important and basic methodological problems in this area—problems which clearly show the general nature of methodological principles. How does the researcher proceed to develop a set of properties that will describe the empirical events adequately and precisely in the first place? These properties must reproduce the complexity of the empirical "reality," and they must simultaneously satisfy the theoretical requirements of simplicity and parsimony. The set of descriptive properties must, moreover, be necessary and sufficient for theoretical and empirical purposes. What are the various methods of obtaining systems that reconcile the conflicting demands for complexity and simplicity, and for exclusiveness and exhaustiveness? How is a given property operationalized so as to produce a level of discriminability required by the theory? Although philosophers of science (R. Carnap, H. Feigl, C. G. Hempel) and a modest number of social scientists (L. J. Cronbach, P. E. Meehl, H. J. Eysenck, H. Peak) have explored some of the above problems, articles in this vein are rare—a deficiency of the field rather than of *The Language*.

Another section of the volume deals with the analysis of relationships between variables, where stress is placed on a set of techniques called *multivariate analysis*. Examined here are ways in which survey data can be cross-tabulated in order to identify factors which are most significant in producing a given result. Some of these ingeniously designed procedures are very useful in discovering causal relationships in survey material.

Multivariate analysis is said to help the researcher to interpret the data he has collected. Perhaps so much emphasis should not be attached to this type of analysis without mentioning that alternative interpretations are often advanced before data are collected. They are, as a matter of fact, frequently dictated by the hypotheses and the experimental design. It may appear that the editors of *The Language* consider such instances unusual since they find a contribution by one author "remarkable in that he starts not with the data but with a set of system-

atically developed hypotheses which he wants to test" (p. 203). This reviewer doubts whether such instances are as rare in social science as the statement implies.

Some selections in the compendium are concerned with the analysis of change. The methods presented are trend analysis, the well-known panel technique, and prediction. In this section the editors seem to depart from their original restriction since methodological decisions relevant to these procedures must necessarily precede the collection of data. Most interesting in this section is the distinction made between two types of predictive studies: those which predict from people's intentions and those which predict from observed attributes.

THE THREE foregoing topics (together with a section on philosophy of science) comprise the "general methodological principles" presented in *The Language*. Whether the sections in index construction, multivariate analysis, and analysis of change demonstrate the generality of methodological principles and support the editors' distinction between "technology" and "methodology" remains questionable. The chapters which elaborate on these topics discuss *tools* and *techniques* used primarily in survey research; they do not show the "general principles" governing them.

The remaining topics relate these analytic techniques to two substantive areas, the study of groups and the analysis of individual action. The group studies presented attempt mainly to formulate properties and attributes which can be used in describing groups. In the section on the application of social science to practical action problems, the editors deal with the "problem of causal analysis in a single case" (p. 387). The contribution of *The Language* is perhaps most evident in the treatment of this very neglected subject matter. Lazarsfeld and Rosenberg make some insightful remarks concerning the analysis of single cases and stimulate further interest in this challenging problem.

The section on philosophy of social sciences has been deliberately placed at the close of the volume so that the student may approach these broad

problems with some backlog of more specific experience. Among the items here are a penetrating treatise on meaning by A. Kaplan (1946) and a cogent discussion on the problem of the whole as a sum of its parts by E. Nagel (1952). Perhaps the reading of greatest importance here is that by H. Zetterberg (1954). He presents in a very lucid and convincing manner a set of arguments for the use of the axiomatic method in sociology. Incidentally, this is the only item which deals with the general problem of theory construction, and its emphasis on the advantages of theoretical rigor strikes dissonance with the empiricist tone of the volume.

On the whole *The Language* is disappointing. The limited scope of the problems and of their methodological implications justifies the editors in resisting the temptation "to feature it as a contribution to the philosophy of social sciences." The assertion that methodological principles cut across interdisciplinary boundaries may be true but is not supported or exemplified by the content of *The Language*. Three-fourths of the articles were written by sociologists. There are a few selections by psychologists, two of each by political scientists, economists, and philosophers of science, and one by a traffic expert. The methodological issues presented are relevant primarily to descriptive type of studies using survey techniques.

Students will find a greater variety of methodological approaches and a more detailed analysis of the assumptions underlying the various methods, of their advantages and limitations, of their applicability, and of the mechanics involved, in other recent texts and compendia.

The present volume's value as a source book would be considerably increased if it had an index of references. Also, its readability would be improved if footnotes were preserved within the general text rather than collected in the Appendix.

The obvious shortcomings of the volume are in its omissions, especially the lack of discussion of problems of methodological and theoretical interdependence. Methods must satisfy the specific requirements of the given theory. They depend on the phenomena examined, on the level of abstraction

selected, on the postulated nature of the analytical units, and, of course, on the aspired precision of the statements. Such deficiencies make *The Language* at best a language.

Research in Reading

Arthur E. Traxler and Agatha Townsend

Eight More Years of Research in Reading: Summary and Bibliography

New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1955. Pp. vi + 283.

By FRANCIS J. DiVESTA
Syracuse University

THIS BULLETIN summarizes the research in reading for the period extending from 1945 through 1952 with some reference for the year 1953. It is an extension of the series represented in the earlier publications, ERB No. 32, *Ten Years of Research in Reading* (1940) and ERB No. 46, *Another Five Years of Research in Reading* (1945). The contents, as in the earlier bulletins, are divided into three major divisions: Introduction (Broad Outline of Reading Research 1945-53), Summary of Research in Reading 1945-52, and Selected Bibliography (Annotated). The same subdivisions that existed for the previous publications have been retained in the present edition with the addition of three new divisions: reading in relationship to personal and social adjustment, readability and readability formulas, and reading "then and now."

Perhaps the greatest weakness of the bulletin is the lack of an explicitly stated population of readers to be served. One questions whether it is to serve the elementary school teacher, the college teacher, or the research worker. From the statement, "The main emphasis is upon research, but an attempt has been made to include certain other materials if they seem likely to provide dependable helpful suggestions for teachers of reading" (p. 1), one might infer that it is the teacher in general to whom the contents are directed. It would have been desirable to justify the rationale for the selection of

materials, particularly since the authors indicate that the 760 references listed were drawn primarily from the Gray list published annually in the *Journal of Educational Research*, although "some of the materials which appear in the Gray summaries have been omitted . . . and some not listed in Dr. Gray's summaries will be found in these reviews" (p. 1).

One may criticize the occasional interpretation which goes beyond the data and clearly represents the author's opinion, although not without reservation. Illustration: "One might almost conclude that the McGuffey hunches were as good as some people's reading formulas" (p. 37). Occasionally one finds incomplete reporting where greater completeness might have been desirable. Example: "Under certain conditions (two tests) could be used interchangeably" (p. 47). In the summary of a study where findings in terms of instructional cost of grouping and advantages of grouping are presented, one finds the statement: "The application to basic instruction in reading was discussed" (p. 14). Unless the reader accepts the author's placement of references in various categories, he will find little to assist him in finding cross references from the index, although the index does indeed provide cross reference between the major divisions of the bulletin. A complete author index is provided.

In general, however, the teacher and student of reading will find this volume useful. Reference data are complete, and significant findings from the original articles are succinctly reported. A code provided after each reference in the bibliography, indicating whether the reference is particularly applicable to a specific grade level, whether it is applicable to subnormal or mentally deficient children, to remedial reading in general, or whether it is a bibliography or summary, enhances the utility of the volume. The treatment of the twenty areas composing the total area of reading is handled broadly with respect to trend, current status, and bibliography. The organization of the bulletin around these areas provides a ready reference for most of the selected material applicable to these areas. The reader will find continuity in the summary of past research and the evaluation of changes without having to refer to earlier bulletins.

High-School Psychology

T. L. ENGLE

Indiana University, Fort Wayne Center

TO MANY psychologists the teaching of psychology in secondary schools may seem to be a recent innovation, but there is evidence (19) that many academies and other secondary schools offered courses in psychology prior to the twentieth century. Early in the present century a good many secondary schools offered psychology as part of their teacher-training programs, and these courses have persisted into the modern high-school curriculum although they no longer serve to train teachers.

A review of the literature (17) indicates that enrollments in courses in psychology have been increasing during the last twenty years, or even longer, and that today psychology is offered in the high schools of at least thirty-four states, perhaps in all of them. Fewer than a tenth of the high schools, however, offer a course under the term *psychology* and the enrollment in psychology courses is only about one per cent of the total high-school population. In all probability an additional two per cent of high-school students are enrolled in courses that involve subject matter largely psychological in nature although it is not labeled *psychology*. Something of the extent to which psychology is taught in high schools can be judged from the fact that at least one of the textbooks reviewed below has had sales of over 100,000 copies in ten years. While enrollments in psychology have been increasing during the last twenty years, in only seven or eight states does the number of high-school students enrolled in courses in psychology equal the number in economics or sociology.

It is principally in the larger schools that psychology is offered as a separate subject of instruction, although such a course is sometimes found in surprisingly small high schools. It usually comes in the senior year, although juniors may be permitted to enroll. In some high schools selected material of a psychological nature is offered in the freshman year in connection with the guidance program.

Some high-school principals are so enthusiastic about the course in psy-

chology that they require it for graduation, but in no state is it a course required for high-school graduation. In about two-thirds of the high schools in which it is offered, psychology is a one-semester course. In the remaining third of the high schools it is a two-semester course.

In most states and in most schools the course is considered as a social study, and credit is granted in the department of social studies, but in some cases psychology counts as science. Although there is evidence (16) that very few teachers conduct formal laboratory periods, many of them do perform simple experiments as demonstrations or have experiments performed by students.

Both teachers and students are enthusiastic about a high-school course in psychology (14). Many teachers say that they enjoy teaching the course in psychology more than any other course they have ever taught. In many schools psychology is limited to one or two classes although students request more classes. Most of the teachers and students would like to have psychology a two-semester course.

Principals generally regard psychology as a "progressive" course in the sense of a subject matter which tends to meet student needs for assistance in understanding problems of personal and social adjustment. A work conference for high-school teachers of psychology which was conducted at Teachers College, Columbia University, in 1952 stressed the objective of helping students to understand themselves and others, with special reference to personal and emotional development (18). Both teachers and students rate psychology higher than other subjects in meeting the modern objectives of secondary education. Students in two-semester courses rate psychology significantly higher in meeting educational objectives than do students in one-semester courses (14).

Psychology is thought of as an initial-terminal course rather than as preparation for further courses at the college level. As far as is known (15), no college or university makes a practice of excusing

students from introductory courses in psychology because they have had psychology in high school, although presumably such a course may be of assistance to a student preparing for an equivalency examination.

High-school teachers of psychology are trained primarily in social sciences and education, although there is evidence (17) that more than two-thirds of them have had a significant amount of undergraduate course work in psychology, and more than half of them have had some graduate training in psychology. Very few, however, devote full time to the teaching of psychology.

Although there is some lecturing, there is a tendency for high-school psychology to be taught by discussion methods which permit and encourage students to express themselves freely concerning personal and social problems. Also there is evidence (16) that the great majority of teachers ask students to recite from their textbooks. They also ask students to read "psychological" articles in newspapers and popular magazines, but very few make use of journals published by APA.

In the light of the fact that teachers are trained primarily in areas other than psychology, that they stress recitation and discussion based on textbooks, and that they do not use material from professional journals, it is important for psychologists to know something of the material presented in contemporary high-school textbooks in psychology.

The reviewer has written letters to twenty-six major publishers of high-school textbooks in order to secure the latest revisions of their books and teaching aids and to hear about manuscripts in preparation.

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HERE ARE seven textbooks considered by the publishers to have been written specifically for high-school courses in psychology. Five of them have the word *psychology* in the main title. They are the books by Averill (1), Engle (6), Josey (9), Sorenson and Malm (12), and Woodworth and Sheehan (13). The other two books contain the word *psychology* only in the subtitle; they are the books by Crow and Crow (4) and by Geisel (7).

In addition, there is a book by Brennan (3) which the publishers say "has been used in a number of private schools for a psychology course." This book is written from the point of view of the Catholic church. References are made both to the research of modern scientific psychologists and to the writings of the Church fathers. (The index contains 127 references to Thomas Aquinas.)

Publishers also submitted five other books for consideration in this review. These books contain some psychological material but are not written as textbooks in psychology. A book by Bliss (2) is a "textbook in guidance for high-school students," which includes, however, some material on how to study and a section on "Your growth in personality" that might be considered as related to psychology. One book, written by a psychologist, Eisenberg (5), deals with problems of personal and social adjustment but does not attempt to present a picture of the field of psychology. Of it the publishers say, "Has been used on occasion on a supplementary basis in high-school psychology courses." The publishers of two books by Landis and Landis (10, 11) indicate that neither book is a 'straight' textbook in psychology but that both "are used in courses which are called psychology as well as in classes under other names, both in the home economics and social studies departments." One of these books, *Building Your Life*, is written for students in their early teens and is most often employed in the ninth and tenth grades. Besides general material on problems of personal and social adjustment, it contains four chapters dealing directly with problems of mental health. The other book, *Personal Adjustment, Marriage and Family Living*, is used most often in the eleventh and twelfth grades. The title of this book gives a good indication of the contents. A book by Jenkins, Bauer, and Shacter (8) is in the health and guidance field. Although it bears the subtitle, *A Health and Personal Development Text for All Teen-Agers*, it is designed for the first two years of high school.

Psychologists will be interested in noting that the seven authors of the five books containing the word *psychology* in the main titles are all members of APA. Of the other eleven authors whose books

are mentioned here, only two, Helen Shacter and Philip Eisenberg are APA members.

Because of the limitations of space for this review, only the seven textbooks containing *psychology* in the main title or the subtitle and written for general high-school use can be considered in further detail.

A SURVEY of the forewords of these seven books indicates that the authors had to a considerable degree common purposes in writing them. In general, these books aim to meet the personal and social adjustment objectives of secondary education. As in other books for adolescents, problems of boy-girl relationships and concern with eventual marriage are emphasized.

In the opinion of this reviewer, all of the seven books are written in styles which should cause no reading difficulty for high-school students and should encourage them to do further reading. Line drawings, graphs, and cartoons are employed extensively. Although these texts mention or quote research studies, the authors seldom give references to the literature. They also take a middle-of-the-road point of view and avoid controversial topics. They stress practical applications at the expense of purely theoretical considerations.

A table can best serve to give a general picture of contemporary high-school psychology as revealed by these texts. The reviewer has analyzed the contents of each book and indicated under nine

categories what he believes to be the percentages of pages devoted to the various areas in psychology. In computing percentages, only total pages devoted to direct instruction were used. These totals are shown in the table at the tops of the columns. Pages devoted to end material containing glossaries, lists of books, and indexes were not included in the computations. The columns in the table do not all total 100 per cent because some books contain blank pages, pages devoted to general pictures, or material which could not strictly be classified under any of the headings.

Several books devote no space at all to statistical material, though each does contain some references to material which might be thought of as statistical in content—at least a mention of the normal frequency distribution. Such material nevertheless constitutes less than 0.5 per cent of the total.

Some of the nine classifications in the table need further explanation. *Introductory* material includes topics related to psychology as a science and the distinction between that science and pseudo-psychology. Under *biological foundations* is included material on heredity, anatomy, physiology, and sensations. Material on *personality* includes topics related to personal relationships in love and marriage as well as the more traditional topics dealing with personality and its measurement. The *learning* classification covers not only material usually treated under this heading, but also material often given under the rubrics of thinking and retention. Also,

SUBJECT-MATTER ANALYSIS OF SEVEN HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS IN PSYCHOLOGY
Percentages of pages in each book devoted to nine areas of psychology

Areas	Averill, 556 pp.	Crow & Crow, 280 pp.	Engle, 606 pp.	Geisel, 423 pp.	Josey, 381 pp.	Sorenson & Malm, 598 pp.	Wood- worth & Sheehan, 414 pp.
1. Introduction.....	4	4	10	2	10	2	15
2. Biological Foundations.....	12	2	22	1	12	10	13
3. Statistics.....	0	0	2	1	3	0	0
4. Intelligence.....	1	5	5	1	1	9	4
5. Personality.....	15	29	13	45	20	20	17
6. Learning.....	23	27	13	3	4	15	29
7. Mental Hygiene.....	16	11	16	25	28	31	11
8. Vocational.....	10	7	8	20	7	7	4
9. Social.....	15	1	10	0	15	2	3

it takes in material on how to study efficiently. *Mental Hygiene* includes material on emotional experiences, general adjustment, and child training for mental health. Under *vocational* is material on selecting a vocation, work efficiency, and some material on avocational interests. *Social* problems include environmental influences, attitudes, propaganda, and crime.

Except for the Geisel book, the various authors have attempted to give a general picture of psychology, although emphasizing different aspects. In general, it may be said that high-school psychology texts tend to stress personality, mental hygiene, and learning. They give considerable attention to biological foundations. Some authors devote considerable space to social problems, while others treat this material lightly, probably because such problems are often discussed in other courses. Facts related to vocational problems are not much stressed, and relatively little space is devoted to the technical topic of intelligence and its measurement. As we have noted, the treatment of statistical concepts and techniques is likewise very limited.

Four of the seven books provide glossaries. In the Josey book 244 technical terms are defined. The definitions are given at the close of the various chapters. In the other three cases the glossaries are given in entirety in the end material of the books: Engle, 250 terms; Sorenson and Malm, 172 terms; Woodworth and Sheehan, 211 terms.

All of these books contain teaching aids at the close of each chapter. These aids consist of questions for discussion or individual consideration, review questions, suggestions for further reading, and exercises, activities, or simple experiments which will enable the student to apply some of the material which he has just studied. The Sorenson and Malm book contains a list of *Books that will help teachers*, as well as a list of books for student reading. Also, this book contains a list of films suitable for use in the teaching of each chapter.

For three of the books, there are available some teaching aids not contained in the textbooks themselves. A set of films considered as supplementary to the Sorenson and Malm book can be had from the publishers. For the Josey book there is a 32-page booklet containing

objective questions—two forms of the tests for each chapter. Several teaching aids are available for the Engle book. It has a 187-page *Workbook in Psychology* directly keyed to the chapters in the text. This workbook contains study aids, suggestions for activities or simple experiments, and objective examination questions. There is also a 35-page *Key* for teachers who use the workbook in their classes. Accompanying the textbook itself, there is a 62-page *Manual and Tests* containing sources of audio-visual aids, apparatus, models, and standardized testing materials; references for professional reading of the teacher; references related to the subject matter presented in the textbook; objective examination questions for each chapter in the textbook.

New editions of Sorenson-Malm and Engle are being prepared at the present time. The Josey and Woodworth-Sheehan books bear revision dates of 1952 and 1951, respectively, although only minor changes were made at those times. The Averill and Crow-Crow books were copyrighted over ten years ago.

PSYCHOLOGY, although offered infrequently as compared with the more traditional fields, is beginning to emerge as one of the areas of high-school instruction. For those students who do not enter college, and for those who do not take psychology in college, the course in high school constitutes their only formal contact with psychology. Whether or not they will appreciate future developments in psychology, and have a critical attitude toward popular literature purporting to be psychology, may depend upon the kind of psychology they have been taught in high school. For those students who attend college and elect psychology, moreover, it is important that their high-school background in psychology be sound. Surely it will have been the high-school course in psychology that started at least some future members of APA off on the course of their professional careers.

HIGH-SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

1. L. A. AVERILL. *Introductory psychology*. New York: Macmillan, 1943. Pp. xi + 564.

2. W. B. BLISS. *Personality and school: Accent on youth*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1951. Pp. vi + 375.
3. R. E. BRENNAN. *The image of his Maker: A study of the nature of man*. Milwaukee: Bruce Publishing Co., 1948. Pp. ix + 338.
4. ALICE CROW & L. D. CROW. *Learning to live with others: A high school psychology*. Boston: D. C. Heath, 1944. Pp. iv + 284.
5. P. EISENBERG. *Why we act as we do*. New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1946. Pp. 266.
6. T. L. ENGLE. *Psychology: Its principles and applications*. Yonkers, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1945, 1950. Pp. xi + 628. (The 1945 edition of ix + 549 pages is not here reviewed.)
7. J. B. GEISEL. *Personal problems: Psychology applied to everyday living*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1949. Pp. ix + 430. (Originally published under the title, *Personal problems and morale*, 1943.)
8. GLADYS G. JENKINS, W. W. BAUER, & HELEN S. SHAETER. *Teen-agers: A health and personal development text for all teen-agers*. Chicago: Scott Foresman, 1954. Pp. 288. (Available with a 128 page addition of *Guidebook for Teen-agers* for the use of the teacher 1955.)
9. C. C. JOSEY, *Psychology and successful living*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948, 1952. Pp. xvi + 405.
10. J. T. LANDIS & MARY G. LANDIS. *Personal adjustment, marriage and family living*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1950, 1955. Pp. xiii + 364.
11. J. T. LANDIS & MARY G. LANDIS. *Building your life*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1954. Pp. vii + 331.
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18. A. T. JERSILD & K. HELFANT. *Education for self-understanding: The role of psychology in the high-school program*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1953.

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The reviewer here makes acknowledgment for the introductory material of this review to the task committee on high-school psychology of the APA Education and Training Board, of which Professor Marion E. Bunch was chairman.



A Text on Adjustment

George F. J. Lehner and Ella Kube

The Dynamics of Personal Adjustment

New York: Prentice-Hall, 1955. Pp. 498. \$7.00.

By PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS BOOK is not a treatise or a report of results of research, but in every respect a textbook, with all the earmarks of a textbook—good organization as indicated by clear paragraph headings, and effective charts, graphs, tables, photographs, and cartoons. At the end of each chapter is a well-selected list of books for additional reading. The material itself in the book has been carefully selected and organized for student use in a college class.

In some ways this might be considered a general text in psychology with adjustment as its keynote. There are sections that could easily be called child psychology, educational psychology, social psychology, vocational psychology. There is a minimum of theory and technical vocabulary. The volume is essentially eclectic, for emphasis tends to be largely a common-sense one, following no one school of psychological thought. The authors draw on the experimental literature both in psychology and sociology for illustrations of their points and as a basis for some of their general principles.

Were it necessary to label the book

with one particular orientation, it could be said to draw more from social psychology than from any other one point of view. Actually, it represents a fine combination of the biological, the sociological, and the psychological approaches to problems of human adjustment. The psychoanalytic point of view is, however, given short shrift. Few of the references in the bibliographies at the ends of chapters are to books by psychoanalysts, and such names as Fenichel and Horney appear only in chapters such as those devoted to the neuroses and psychotherapy.

The first author is already known by his text on mental hygiene with Barney Katz, and his workbook on adjustment. The second author, who undoubtedly contributed the flavor of social psychology to the book, is making her first published contribution in the field of psychology. We are told in the preface that the term "dynamics of adjustment" is intended to convey . . . the innumerable factors that determine the way in which each individual behaves. The expression implies learning and relearning . . . The emphasis is not on physiological structure but on psychological strain."

This reviewer, taking the last chapter on psychotherapy and adjustment as a sample, finds the material well selected and organized. The authors speak of psychotherapy as a learning process; they stress its emphasis on relationship and mention the different types of relationship in the therapeutic situation. They devote a section to the various changes to be expected in psychotherapy. Then they discuss some of the principal psychotherapies which are current today, starting in with psychoanalysis as interpreted by Freud, Jung, and Adler, and taking up subsequently Adolf Meyer's directive approach and Rogers' nondirective approach. There is also a brief paragraph devoted to group psychotherapy. Another section deals with the possibility of help through self-analysis and a final section attempts to orient the reader about the

different professional orientation of those who practice psychotherapy.

This reviewer predicts that this book will find wide use as a text in courses on personality and adjustment.

Teaching Adults About People

Daniel I. Malamud

Teaching a Human Relations Workshop

Chicago: Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1955. Pp. iii + 35. \$2.50.

By ALBERT S. THOMPSON

Teachers College, Columbia University

THIS PAMPHLET presents the rationale for and method of conducting a course in adult education designed to arouse the student's curiosity about human behavior, to motivate him to discover his own insights, and to help him to absorb those insights. Through films, anecdotes, and psychodramas, the students are helped to observe themselves and each other and to explore their emotional reactions to what transpires in the group.

Although not designed as a cookbook, the pamphlet describes in some detail how the sessions are carried out and presents many suggestions on the conduct of such a course. Of considerable interest is the description of the stages members of the class go through as they progress from the expectation of an instructor-centered situation to that of group and individual responsibility for the analytic task, and finally to self-insight into their own behavior. As the author states, "The participant-observational approach to teaching psychodynamics is still in its infancy. . . . We need to describe the teaching-learning process with greater detail and exactitude." This the author has tried to do and in an interesting, instructive fashion.



*All that mankind has done, thought, gained or been:
it is lying as a magic preservation in the pages of books.*

—THOMAS CARLYLE



How to Change a Culture

Margaret Mead (Ed.)

Cultural Patterns and Technical Change (A Manual prepared by The World Federation for Mental Health.)

New York: New American Library, 1955. Pp. 352. \$50.

By ALEX INKELES

Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences

ALTHOUGH it purports to be a manual for those engaged in effecting technological change to guide them in the implications of their work for mental health, this book does not discuss the personality problems or mental health of a single individual or of any particular group. The first half is entirely given over to five "studies of whole cultures." Despite some apparent effort to use a common set of descriptive categories, those who wrote the individual studies—their names are not given—differed substantially in the conceptual schemes they utilized in selecting the materials. The studies are of uneven quality. Several are thin yet at the same time pretentious; one sketch begins with the assertion that "the culture of Greece is here presented as an integrated whole," and then proceeds to accomplish this modest task in forty pages! There seems to have been no compelling reason—other than the aim of "diversity" cited by the editor—for the selection of any one of these cultures nor of the set as a whole. The individual studies are not clearly focused on, and do not systematically illustrate, problems in either culture change or mental health, let alone the interaction of the two.

The second major part of the manual, which presents "cross cultural studies of aspects of technical change" such as those in agriculture and education, is if anything less enlightening. It is a collection of odd bits and dabs of information about successful and unsuccessful attempts to introduce animal fertilizers or to get midwives to cooperate with male doctors. No systematic focus is evident, and no very clear conclusions emerge, except perhaps that the process of planned change is likely either to fail or to produce unintended consequences.

The third and last part of the book, which gets only about a fifth of the space, does indeed offer some sensible, even if fragmentary, advice about how to carry out technical change as part of an assistance program in a way likely to make it less disruptive of the integration of the culture and hence less conducive to mental illness. Here one more clearly feels the firm hand of Margaret Mead at work. Basically the advice comes down to the idea that a culture is a relatively integrated whole such that its parts cannot be treated in isolation, that changes in it must therefore be selected and introduced with a consideration for the value scheme and the folkways, that a change will be more readily adopted if it meets a felt need of the population, that prior examination of the program by members of the culture to be affected will increase the chances of acceptance and minimize the chances of introducing a pattern which disrupts some important feature of the larger culture pattern, and that pilot or test programs and "experiments" on a small scale are an excellent tool in planning efficiently for the introduction of technical innovations.

This book is almost completely unsuccessful on any level, and in the opinion of this reviewer, should not have been reproduced in book form from the original Unesco publication. As a casebook on the impact of technological change on culture patterns, which is what the title leads one to expect, it is undistinguished in itself and quite inferior both to existing casebooks and to one or two others now in progress. With regard to the problems of mental health, which both the sponsorship and the subtitle suggest is to be the main focus, it fails to bring together and to analyze the existing material which deals with the effects of culture change on adjustment, including projects such as the Indian Education Research Project, or the numerous personal documents scattered through the literature.

ALL that this book succeeds in doing is to make it abundantly clear that we could use some good studies carefully designed to accumulate information and to test theories on the relations between sociocultural change and mental health. It is to be hoped that on the next time

around the World Federation of Mental Health will require the development of a satisfactory research or study design, that the director and advisory committee will insist on the execution of the plan, and that Unesco will withhold publication until it finds that it has something of real substance to say.

Youth's Aspiration in Different Lands

James M. Gillespie and Gordon W. Allport

Youth's Outlook on the Future (DOUBLEDAY PAPERS IN PSYCHOLOGY No. DPP 15)

Garden City, New York: Doubleday, 1955. Pp. 61. \$85.

By CHARLES F. WARNATH

Teachers College, Columbia University

AS THE authors state: "This study is both an examination of the attitudes of college students in ten different countries toward their individual and collective futures and an experiment in the techniques of international social research." The presentation of techniques of data collection, problems encountered, and methods of handling the data should be of interest to anyone in the social sciences. Unfortunately the authors were not able to obtain their hoped-for sample of 100 students of each sex in each of ten different countries. Even if these groups had been available, the samples would have been open to criticism from the hard-shelled scientist as being unrepresentative. The number of some nationality-sex groups is actually as low as eleven.

The tools for the collection of data were an autobiography in which the students were asked to follow their careers from now to 2000 A.D. and a 50-item questionnaire.

Only six pages of the pamphlet are devoted to background of the study, the problem, and the method. About 30 pages are devoted to results and ten national "portraits," derived from the data. It might be wished that the emphasis had been reversed.

CP SPEAKS . . .

HERE are big cultural differences between nations and between centuries, and little differences between in-groups and between decades. The *Ortgeister* and the *Zeitgeister* are never fixed. They differ from place to place and from time to time. Even Tolstoy believed that, arguing, as he did, that Napoleon himself did nothing to change History, was himself but History's slave. In science these differences, these changes, occur in attitudes, values and importances, not merely in the facts and knowledge that make up the ever-expanding body of wisdom.

Take Germany and America as a paradigm. How different in the two countries in 1956 is the sense of what is important to psychology! How different it was in 1896! Here we have a two-parameter fourfold table. In Germany from introspection—*Selbstbeobachtung*, of course—to *Verstehen*. In America from function to behavior. In each longisection something stays the same and something changes, and also in each cross section something stays the same and something changes. In 1896 the leaders of American psychology, so many of them Leipzig-trained, thought they were importing the new German psychology into America, whereas actually they were, as they took the German product over, remodeling it to fit the practical climate of American thought and values. Thus can the 1890s be explained, but the present, the 1950s, are too close for such sure analysis by any mere editor of *CP*.

Still there is the difference needing to be understood. These distinguished German psychologists who come nowadays to America to see its psychological Goliath at close range, how bewildered they are at first! Line up the 15,000 members of the American Psychological Association along any handy seven-mile stretch that you wish, sending riders along the line to tell all phenomenologists to step two paces forward. How many phenomenologists will there be? Then ask the American-born phenomenologists to step two more paces forward. How many of them? *CP* will print the results

of this census when they are available, along with the data for the German control, but *CP* says now that phenomenology fares better abroad than it does in the United States.

And so for other national differences. British psychology is noticeably different from American, though a common language, a long tradition, and a Darwinian heritage tend to bring them together. The atmosphere of French psychology was never like the German nor the British, nor is it now. The Soviet Union has emerged more recently on the scene and is unique in having a special accelerator for its *Zeitgeist*. At least Raymond Bauer says the Russian psychologists were environmentalists in the 1920s, and fiat-purposivists in the 1930s, with the kaleidoscopic Pavlov changing from hero to villain and back again to hero, all in a brief, twenty-year, largely posthumous career.

CP is, of course, American-born. Does that mean that it deals primarily with American psychology, this great, elephantine, very western movement that began as functional psychology, became behavioristic, and now threatens to become part or all of behavioral science? Hardly. *CP* may have a mandate to stick to the contemporaneous present but certainly not to the local scene. In this issue Henry David discusses the reviewing of foreign books in America and in Europe. He does not find it possible to make a strict comparison. Europe reviews more American books than America reviews European, partly because America has more books to review. You catch more fish in the pond with the more fish in it. David, however, makes the point that American psychology, with its great size and the consequent tendency to try to dominate the world field, should not allow its sense of self-importance and self-sufficiency to induce the self-complacency of what could become an enormous provincialism.

CP is glad to publish this paper, to have David needle it into needling the American psychologists into looking abroad to examine what is going on outside of America. In-group complacency is not

the means whereby psychology came to its present status, nor does it breed the dissatisfaction that will take psychology on to a future as unpredictable now as its 1956 present was in 1896.

How *CP* can work out better European coverage of books is not clear at the moment. *CP* needs all the information about outstanding European books it can get. Here some of its readers can help. Tell *CP* about important foreign books that it is likely to miss and say why they are important and who publishes them. Then *CP* also needs reviewers who are competent in special fields, who can read French, German, and some of the other European languages, and who know how to write interesting English. In America, where what has been called anti-intellectualism is not unknown, the scholar has no such prestige as will enable him to impose a dull version of truth upon a captive audience. In America the scholar must win his audience. So what *CP* wants are erudite linguists with winning ways who are nevertheless psychologists. Anyone finding such will please notify this office instantly.



THE Bruner ministerium in the Department of Social Relations at Harvard is about to issue a rescript on the psychological nature of inference, an argumentative declaration that leans on information theory, decision theory and related experiments. It is called *A Study of Thinking* (John Wiley), and is by Jerome Bruner, Jacqueline Goodnow, and George Austin, with Roger Brown acting as prompter on linguistics. It is sad that George Austin did not live even to see galley.



This gay thought comes to *CP* from Joseph R. Royce. He wants *CP* to print Mueller and Schoenfeld's *Analysis of Guthrie's Analysis of Muller and Schoenfeld's Analysis of Guthrie*. (It would have to be convergent, though—geometrically diminishing with a ratio less than $\frac{1}{2}$. That is the measure of *CP*'s stuffiness.)

—E. G. B.

Insight Precedes Therapy

Barney Katz and Louis P. Thorpe

Understanding People in Distress

New York: Ronald Press, 1955.
Pp. vii + 357. \$4.00.

By HAROLD K. FINK

New York City

THIS IS not a 'self-help book' which gives formulae which the common man can use to rid himself and others of personality disorders and emotional difficulties. Its title is accurate: it helps the person in distress (and who doesn't fit into that category in some way?) to understand himself and others, and, as the authors express it, "understanding is the first giant step that must be taken before any improvement can take place." The reader who 'meets himself' repeatedly in these pages will discover that there are reasons why he suffers emotional distress—even if he himself cannot understand those reasons—and many readers will probably be encouraged by this book to admit their need and seek the kind of competent professional help described by the authors. Such a result of reading this book will come not so much from the uncomfortable, perhaps frightening, realization that 'ordinary' emotional distress is indicative of at least mild emotional illness, but more from the realization that psychotherapy is for the 'average neurotic' and not just for the psychotic or psychopath.

Although this book gives clear and accurate (if necessarily limited and incomplete) descriptions of psychotic and psychopathic personalities, the emphasis is upon the neuroses and character disorders which the layman encounters more frequently in everyday life. Illustrated by brief cases from the authors' own experience, the comprehensive overview of emotional distress probes into the causes in conflict and frustration, discusses the more common symptoms, and describes various methods of treatment. While emphasizing therapeutic treatment as the province of the trained specialist, the authors do help to dispel much of the cloud of hocus-

pocus through which many people still view psychotherapy as a profession. Such frankness and freshness is in healthy contrast to much writing which seems to excuse obscurity as a necessary evil of being 'professional' and 'scientific.' This concise but comprehensive discussion, based upon the latest research in psychology and psychiatry, will be valuable to students in the field, as well as a good reference for bibliotherapy, especially for the patient who is not severely disturbed. It might even be used to clarify the thinking of the patient who tends to misuse technical terms as a smoke screen for deeper problems.

Drs. Barney Katz and Louis P. Thorpe, experienced as practicing clinical psychologists and as college professors, have made a significant contribution to helping people understand themselves and other people, and in that understanding to become more tolerant, permissive, and helpful, not only in being aware of possible causes of emotional distress but also in knowing how to secure the professional help which can facilitate the processes of healing.

matches with the admirable intensity of his own thinking is indeed unusual. Yet, as the author states, his is after all not a textbook but an adventure in theoretical psychology which presupposes not only a very thorough familiarity with the factual content of psychology but also a first-hand knowledge of the works of at least a score of German authors who have published before 1920. It is with this latter prerequisite that one wonders for whom this book has really been written. In order to enjoy it fully the reader should also have at his disposition an immense store of general information pertaining to the history of the arts and their techniques. Should he, for instance, not know in what the "tragedy of German poetry which has lasted for a thousand years" (p. 65) consists, he will also not be told.

Metzger states at the outset his bias (*Einseitigkeit*): he is a Gestalt psychologist of strictest orthodoxy, who literally would never think of taking exception to statements made by Wertheimer and Köhler and—to a lesser degree—by Koffka and Lewin. In a way it seems that these men were always right and that the positions which they attacked or ignored were therefore largely wrong. Metzger's own contribution consists in the most systematic presentation of Gestalt psychology that has so far appeared and that is likely ever to be written. Unfortunately there is no good way for a review to convey or even to scan the many and for the most part highly felicitous formulations which have been put into this system.

The approach is oriented towards the nine great problems with which the author assumes that psychology has been struggling since time immemorial: the problem of what is real, of the attributes of real objects and the connections between them, of the frame of reference and the centers of gravity, of order and causation, of the relationship between body and mind, and of development. In each case the position of the opponents—'materialistic', 'mechanistic', 'connectionistic'—is presented first, whereupon references to perceptual phenomena serve at once to show how shortsighted these opponents have been. This method of discourse, with its unavoidable exaggerations, is, of course, well known from the earlier writings of Köhler, Koffka,

Apotheosis of Gestalt Psychology

Wolfgang Metzger

Psychologie: die Entwicklung ihrer Grundannahmen seit der Einführung des Experiments (2nd ed.)

Darmstadt: Verlag Steinkopff, 1954.
Pp. xix + 407. DM 35.—

By P. R. HOFSTÄTTER

Hochschule f. Sozialwissenschaften,
Wilhelmshaven

SOME WRITERS on statistical topics have recently given their readers worthwhile suggestions concerning the way in which their books should be read. Savage, for instance, recommended "sitting bolt upright on a hard chair at a desk." This advice comes to mind when one starts reading Metzger's treatise. The amount of concentration which Metzger requires and which he generously

Lewin, and Wertheimer. Has there really been a psychologist in the last fifty years who claimed that in the character of a single human being all the imaginable habits could be implanted together (p. 96)? Yet, if this position has indeed been held by no one, then who is really defeated by the Gestaltists? The analytically minded 'mechanists' are, moreover, often defeated but hardly ever given a chance to defend themselves. Actually they have indeed made their defenses; yet Metzger misses the fact that in recent years some of these elementarists have presented alternative explanations to some of the most important Gestalt notions, like the principle of transposition (Spence and Hull), the figural aftereffects (Osgood and Heyer) and the law of adaptation (Helson).

WHAT the Gestaltists fail to recognize is really their own success. In other words, their movement served as a stimulus during the twenties and the early thirties by presenting psychologists with important questions. Many of these problems, however, could also be dealt with in a non-Gestaltist manner. Take, for instance, the famous super-summativity principle according to which the whole is more than the sum of its parts: $W \neq A + B$. You have only to add an interaction term on the right side to render this equation more flexible: $W = A + B + k(A^n \cdot B^m)$. In so doing you remain still an 'elementarist' but it becomes difficult to reject the adequacy of your postulate. I ask myself, furthermore, whether the distinction—in principle—between 'gestaltism' and 'elementarism' is not actually overdrawn. Gestaltists operate with field concepts and yet these concepts derive from infinitesimal calculus; they thus carry with them (implicitly) the recognition of the intellectual recourse to infinitely small elements which may even be summed. The same holds for Köhler's ingenious search for 'physical Gestalten' (1920) which leans heavily upon differential equations. On the other hand, Gestaltists still operate with the notion of localizable 'memory traces'; though most elementarists consider these 'elements' as rather unsuitable hypothetical constructs.

I suppose Boring was right with his

statement in the introduction to his *History*: "In 1929 Gestaltpsychology had come but had not gone. Now it has accomplished its mission." In a way one could say that Metzger's book maintains the position of 1929 or of 1930 (which seems to be the median date of the references it uses), and that it has been only slightly affected by the changes which have since occurred in the theoretical orientation of psychologists. Most importantly, I should like to mention the deliberate use of models and hypothetical constructs which has given psychology a flexibility of approach reminiscent of the physicist's possibility to deal with his problems at one moment under the aspects of continuity and contact-action and in the next in terms of elementary particles and action at a distance. Secondly, psychology's attitude toward experimental results has changed: we expect them no longer to demonstrate just one possible outcome, but we analyze them—preferably in a multivariate manner—with regard to the decision problems which each experiment involves. Thirdly, our quantitative tools have matured since 1930. I understand that these developments are adequately presented to Metzger's own students at the University of Münster, but they are not even mentioned in his book.

The first edition of Metzger's book appeared in 1940; its second edition has been greatly expanded but not at all changed in emphasis. Somehow it is still involved in the intellectual battles of the early thirties. One finds in it, therefore, many references to events which have occurred "recently" or "a short while ago" ("erst kürzlich"), while the date which is referred to is actually 1925, 1929, or 1933. It may well be that this is the dilemma of present-day German psychology in general; to turn back one's calendar in the year 1954 to the year 1933 is, however, to become anachronistic. With reference to Köhler (1920, 1923, 1933) we find therefore the statement: "at the moment there seems to be no possibility that we may observe these inferred central-nervous processes from the outside by the means of physics and physiology" (p. 300). Of course, this is no longer Köhler's position in the post-war years!

The last chapter deals with the

problem of development. Here the notion of a process is elaborated which leads in many instances from an initial totality-dominance to the separation and the autonomy of parts (*Ausgliederung*). In accepting this model one could, of course, argue that a relatively primitive system, like perception, may actually be more amenable to a Gestalt treatment than the systems of adaptive activity or of thinking or of both. Gestaltists like Metzger always take perceptual phenomena as their points of departure and carry their findings, largely in an analogical manner, into other fields of psychology. This method of approach may be considered legitimate as far as it works. Should it, however, not be considered equally legitimate to start with a more part-dominated phase and to work from there backwards? I am inclined to think that an affirmative answer to this question would establish in psychology the peaceful coexistence between the holistic and the elementaristic emphasis that characterizes present-day physics. What we need for this purpose is, I feel, a thinker of the undeniably stature of Metzger. Perhaps Metzger himself might one day undertake the task.

Model Show

Dunlap & Associates, Inc.

Mathematical Models of Human Behavior: A Symposium

Stamford, Conn.: Dunlap & Associates, 1955. Pp. vii. + 193.

By BERT F. GREEN

Lincoln Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology

THIS VOLUME is a collection of eleven papers presented at a symposium on mathematical models sponsored by Dunlap and Associates, Inc. and the Commission on Accidental Trauma of the Armed Forces Epidemiological Board. The contributors are R. R. Bush, C. H. Cooms, W. Edwards, W. K. Estes, M. M. Flood, H. H. Jacobs, M. Jarvik, R. C. Kao, H. Markowitz, J. Marschak, P. Lazarsfeld, and R. D. Luce. Ten of the papers are formal presentations that bear no special relation to each other apart from their emphasis on mathematical models,

and are not essentially different from journal articles. The final paper, and informal summary by Lazarsfeld, provides the only indication that a symposium was in progress since the *ex tempore* discussions of the papers are fortunately omitted. The book might easily be mistaken for an issue of *Psychometrika*.

The title of the book is somewhat misleading. The papers provide neither a representative coverage of model building in the behavioral sciences nor a comprehensive coverage of a single topic. There are six papers on decision processes, two on stochastic learning models, and one each on psychological scaling and accident proneness. Detection theory, tracking, neural organization, and many other areas are not represented.

Models based on game theory occupy three-fourths of the book. These models differ from other mathematical models of behavior in one crucial way: they are *normative* rather than *descriptive*, that is to say, game theory is concerned with optimum behavior, in some sense, rather than with actual behavior. This distinction, however, is recognized explicitly only by Marschak, who shows that the addition of a random component to a particular normative model can lead to a descriptive model of choice behavior. Studies of utility may provide a more general bridge between norm and description if it is possible to measure utility in such a way that people's behavior is optimum with respect to it. With this goal, Markowitz argues for the necessity of a symmetric utility curve with three inflection points. On the other hand, Edwards provides evidence that the game-theory model must be altered to include the concept of subjective probability in order to describe his subjects' gambling behavior. Alterations are even more likely to be necessary in order to describe group behavior, but Luce and Flood, both of whom note discrepancies between actual and optimal behavior in group-decision experiments, seem to favor changing the experiments or the subjects rather than the model. Flood's experiment, reported in exhaustive detail, gives a particularly good example of the discrepancy between norm and reality.

Although there are unavoidable dif-

ferences in style and clarity, most of the papers are easy to read. Only two include difficult mathematical presentations. All in all the book contains stimulating contributions by distinguished authors and is a valuable addition to the literature on mathematical models. Many readers, nevertheless, will agree with Lazarsfeld, who ends his summary by noting, "while the main result of [the symposium] was for me, as a social scientist, how much I learned about mathematical model-building, I occasionally had the feeling how good an idea it would be to give some of the mathematicians a glimpse of the problems with which social scientists are confronted."

Munn on Growth of Behavior

Norman L. Munn

The Evolution and Growth of Human Behavior

Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1955.
Pp. xi + 525. \$6.50.

By JOHN P. MCKEE

University of California

ANYONE interested in developmental psychology who does not have Munn's *Psychological Development* (1938) on his shelf ought to have this revision of that work which is now very hard to find. Like its predecessor, this volume appears to be designed for advanced undergraduates and beginning graduate students, but many a more mature psychologist will find in it lots of information that he remembers only very hazily if at all. Now that comparative psychology is in a temporary eclipse and personality study and clinical psychology in ascendancy, it is encouraging to have a revision of a book which is so firmly and soundly grounded in the biological side of life.

It is Munn's really impressive scholarship that constitutes this book's greatest asset; and, in those portions which are most closely related to comparative psychology and to learning, he is at his best. Not only does he obviously know his material in great detail, but he presents it so that its relevance to human

development is perfectly apparent. His Flesch count will, moreover, commend him to students, although he never writes down. In short, serious students will be able to learn a great deal from this book and they will be able to do so without having to wade through any of the abstruse cant that sometimes passes for profundity, theory, or ideation. The book is well written, clear, and coherent.

If there are any complaints about this book, they will concern those portions which are new. In some ways the most completely revised parts are the least satisfactory, partly, I suppose, because this basic material is scanty or extremely speculative. See, for example the last two chapters: *The Growth of Personality in Children* and *Changes in Personality from Adolescence until Senescence*. But not all of the difficulty is due to the material. Munn seems a little less thoughtful or a little less careful in the entirely new portions than in those sections which were taken nearly intact from the original volume. For instance, in his revised discussion of learning he takes up the question of motivation and remarks that "even those who, like Tolman, argue for *latent learning* and a difference between *learning* and *performance*, have failed to produce convincing evidence that motivation is unimportant" (p. 222). Such a statement might well lead an undergraduate to some rather erroneous notions about Professor Tolman's views. Again, Munn remarks in the chapter on aging that "both physiological and psychological capacities begin their decline in the thirties, at first slowly and imperceptibly, then somewhat more rapidly as old age approaches" (p. 496). Yet both Shock and Kinsey, to whom Munn refers elsewhere, have reported data showing that a decline begins considerably earlier.

All in all, though, these difficulties are not serious. The instructor can easily compensate for them. And there is so much else to recommend the text that this criticism seems almost gratuitous. Most of the content is very thoroughly examined; the prose is good clear English; the typography and binding are excellent; the illustrations are pertinent; distracting footnotes are kept to a minimum; and even the double-column printing somehow seems to have the virtue of making it possible to scan a great deal of material more rapidly than otherwise.

Soviet Nomothetes

Raymond A. Bauer, with the assistance of **Edward Wasiolek**

Nine Soviet Portraits

Cambridge, Mass.: Technology Press of M. I. T.; and New York; John Wiley & Sons, 1955. Pp. ix + 190, \$3.95.

By **EDWIN G. BORING**

Harvard University

PLUS ça change, plus c'est la même chose. The Soviet Union has not changed basic human nature. After all what is a man, Soviet or American? He is a bundle of motives, or rather, if you are being particular about your language, he is a field in which needs and wishes interact. And, if you pick up a person in New York or Moscow or Nineveh or Megalopolis, you find that he works on the same principles no matter where or when you found him. Rewards and incentives, restraints and fears, egoism and ambition, love and envy—these are the forces that make him go. This reviewer was impressed, perhaps more than was the author of this book, with the universality of human nature. Presumably the author took this commonality for granted. "But for the grace of God, there go I," thought the reviewer as he identified himself successively with each of these nine Soviet personalities that Bauer and Wasiolek have described.

For the most part the book's creators are concerned with how the grace of God and the compulsion of the Kremlin can make Soviet citizens different from American and also from one another. Common to all these nine Russians are "the regime of terror effected by the secret police, the extreme pressure to work to the limit of one's powers, chronic material shortages for both producers and consumers, the all-pervasive politicization of life, the eternal trinity of Party, police, and administrative organs, reliance on extra-legal devices as ways around impasses posed by over-rigid formal structure, the struggle of the individual to increase his sphere of free movement and his share of the limited material goods and the regime's attempts to block him in this struggle." These are the external pressures under which

the particular personality is formed. They are accepted when they advantage the individual, rejected in thought and motive when they are frustrating, coped with in any case. You feel after reading that your visa to the Soviet Union was without restrictions, that you spoke Russian fluently, and that these nine citizens, though they did not tell all that was in their minds, were frank with you and liked to tell you about their difficulties. Quite a feat for any author to get you such a visa!

What Bauer and his colleague have done is to create type-persons as they live, think, and act in the present Soviet milieu. The data are true. They come from the Harvard Project on the Soviet Social System, in which escaped refugees from the Soviet Union were interviewed as to their own experiences and their knowledge of conditions within their motherland. The portraits are fiction, composites of the data collected with the least bit of fabrication necessary to make them into stories. The appendix tells how little fabrication there was. At first you think that the treatment is idiographic, that these portraits are case histories; but they are not. Nor are they even exactly fiction, since the characteristics of the people and the events of their stories are always subordinated to the facts of the records. The persons themselves are synthetized types; let us call them nomothetes. They are themselves little theories, little generalizations about what happens to personalities under certain more or less standard sets of impulsions and constraints. And you learn more sociology than psychology from this book because the chief dimension of variation is social and because the human beings meet these special conditions with merely the standard repertoire of personal needs and psychological mechanisms.

T

HE NINE NOMOTHETES chosen for synthesis are (1) the student, three of them, in fact, (2) the woman collective farmer, (3) the woman doctor, (4) the Party secretary, (5) the housewife, (6) the writer, (7) the factory director, (8) the tractor driver, and (9) the secret police agent. It is the *the* before these names that makes the descriptions nomothetic; we should write *a* before an

idiograph. You find love here, and some loyalty, loyalty to Party, to child and to friend, but mostly what appears is effort and struggle, aggression against forces that are both personal and impersonal, the more primitive drives that dominate when the struggle for existence is undertaken of necessity and with no assurance of success. To those of us who know the relative social and economic freedom of the west, it is depressing to see man impressed into the formation of a modern industrial civilization by constraints that belong to a more barbarous age, but there is also something stimulating about seeing that man, at any level to which he is demoted or to which he has attained, still struggles. It is this universal discontent that is called divine because it is mostly denied to robots.

Perhaps the fiction of this book suffers because it is subordinated to the sociology; nevertheless it is extremely good. This reviewer read every word of the book with no compulsion by responsibility. He wanted to know what happened at the end of each story. Not many behavioral scientists could do so well with a literary medium and still keep their psychology and sociology uncontaminated. Bauer uses skillful words to influence thought. So does the Kremlin, but Bauer's book shows why his method is the pleasanter.

The Child's Habitat

Roger G. Barker and Herbert F. Wright

Midwest and Its Children: The Psychological Ecology of an American Town

Evanston, Ill.: Row, Peterson, 1955. Pp. vii + 532. \$7.50.

By **ALFRED L. BALDWIN**

Cornell University

WHEN Barker and Wright's *One Boy's Day* (1951), an unadorned, unconceptualized description of the behavior of one boy from awakening to going to sleep, was published, a frequent reaction of psychologists was "So what?" In some ways *Midwest and Its Children* is more of the same, but it has in it much more in the

way of analysis and interpretation. For people who are not fascinated by raw descriptive records, it would be an overwhelming chore to read the book from cover to cover. Fortunately, however, the various sections may be taken separately without too much loss, and the contributions to behavioral science contained therein make it well worth the effort.

BARKER AND WRIGHT went to Midwest with a specific scientific objective: to describe the psychological habitat of children. Their purpose is descriptive and they picture their role in science as that of the naturalist who collects and describes specimens in theoretically neutral terms. Hence, the prevalence of raw data, (e.g., the page and a half of theoretically neutral—and dull—data about Midwest's mean elevation, mean temperature, annual rainfall). The book is filled with specimens of behavior and of community settings. Chapter 11, for example, is entitled *An Episode Exhibit*.

The authors' description of Midwest is only partially similar to usual sociological studies of small towns, for it is more empirical and less impressionistic than the usual sociological or anthropological study. The description of 585 community settings and 10,406 episodes of child behavior makes a solid empirical base for the research. No one could feel that their description of Midwest is oversimplified, but one may believe that it is biased. There are, for example, no mentions of power politics, youth's feeling of stiflement and discontent, or the private sins of reputable people. (Were Barker and Wright blind to the unfavorable aspects of Midwest?) In partial defense of them it may be said that their methods are not designed to highlight such aspects of behavior and that the data do not deny their existence. We can see, for example, how a fair amount of power politics could occur in the 1,392 man-hours which various inhabitants spent in "executive planning sessions," even though the authors do not analyze the data for the influence of politics on the town. Still we wonder if there was no Saturday night poker session, no lover's lane, no school-age gang hideout, no adolescent secret society.

In obtaining their records the authors tried hard to be naive, to put down merely what was apparent to the naked eye. Nevertheless, to make their methods work, they did in fact develop considerable sophistication.

Thus the "behavior setting survey," one main source of their data, began as an inventory of the regions of the town between which the inhabitants customarily discriminate; but gradually the notion of a "standing behavior pattern" emerged from the research. This is a behavior pattern which is elicited from everyone who enters a particular setting regardless of wide individual differences in personality. It is somewhat like 'custom' and 'role' in this respect but has a definite location. For example, the custom of demanding satisfaction if one is insulted is a standing behavior pattern but not a setting. In making an inventory of settings the authors faced the problem of deciding when two settings are different—e.g., the first and the second grade classroom. They advanced the theoretical criterion of independent variability to make these decisions. While the reviewer has some doubts about the actual criterion they use, it is clear how the descriptive task influenced the authors in basic theoretical considerations.

Having identified 585 settings, the authors describe them in 26 ways. *Occupancy* describes the total man-hours spent in each setting; *penetration* how important and central a person is in a setting—from leader down to spectator; and so on. From such scores some interesting indices are calculated, like the performance/performer ratio. If each participation in a setting in the role of a responsible functionary is taken as a performance, then the 721 Midwest citizens accomplished a total of 5,659 performances. The average is about 7 performances per person per year.

The second main source of data is eleven "specimen records," each describing one day's behavior of one child. Methodological problems were solved, first, in obtaining the records; second, in dividing them into episodes; and third, in devising a set of descriptive categories for analysis. The most exciting chapter for this reviewer is the one on dividing the behavioral record into episodes, for

the authors do, indeed, go beyond a mere impressionistic division to a theoretical analysis of what constitutes an episode.

EACH of the 10,406 episodes in the eleven specimen records is described in terms of 29 variables. The findings are presented in the form of frequency distributions. For example, the action of Midwest children toward other children show the following characteristics in decreasing frequency: domination, appeal, resistance, nurturance, aggression, submission, compliance, and avoidance.

Certainly, the research was a tremendous job of empirical description. The result is impressive but not entirely convincing as a demonstration of the values of ecological research. It makes an important contribution in that it develops theoretical concepts for describing a psychological habitat, but the reviewer is, nevertheless, left with some doubts about the adequacy with which Midwest and its children have been described.



Pregnant Dreams

Sigmund Freud

The Interpretation of Dreams

(Translated and edited by James Strachey)

New York. Basic Books, 1955.
Pp. xxxii + 692. \$7.50.

By MERVIN B. FREEDMAN

Vassar College

THE PUBLISHERS refer to this book as the definitive English version, and their assertion seems justified. It contains all of the changes in the original text which Freud made over the years, and it is far more complete than Brill's translation, which has been the standard English version up to now. The book contains a running commentary by James Strachey, the translator, that relates the central themes and concepts of the work to the general de-

development of Freud's thought and to the psychoanalytic movement in general. This commentary is masterful indeed.

As for the importance of the book itself, it may be noted that as late as 1931 Freud himself wrote: "It contains, even according to my present day judgment, the most valuable of all the discoveries it has been my good fortune to make. Insight such as this falls to one's lot but once in a lifetime." Ernest Jones has reported that *The Interpretation of Dreams* and *Three Essays on Sexuality* were Freud's favorites among his writings and that these were the only works which he kept "up to date." Strachey can hardly be accused of exaggeration when he comments that "*The Interpretation of Dreams* is one of the major classics of scientific literature and . . . the time has come to treat it as such."

A reviewer of this book can hardly escape feelings of regret that he could not have performed this task some five years ago, prior to the publication of Freud's letters to Fliess and the first two volumes of the Jones biography, prior, in other words, to the recent focusing of attention upon the origins of psychoanalysis and upon the qualities of Freud himself. It is a moving experience to read this book. One is awed by Freud's ability to write with freshness and humor about his self-analysis, the first in history. Here indeed is history in the making, for we are reading the first systematic description of unconscious motivation, of the complex interplay between the apparent and the latent. Here is the first systematic account of the erotic and hostile relationships between parents and children, the "Oedipus complex." Here is exegesis of the tremendous importance of infantile life in shaping the adult personality. Here is a very complex theory of human behavior based on psychical, not physiological units.

When one considers the role of dream study in the origins of psychoanalysis, he is set to wondering about the relative lack of systematic interest in dreams today. Can it be that psychologists have learned just about all they can from the dream? Or is Erik Erikson correct when he says, "It is possible that the dream has hardly begun to yield its potentialities for research in personality diagnosis?"



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Linguistic Dualism

Heinz Werner (Ed.)

On Expressive Language

Worcester, Mass: Clark University Press, 1955. Pp. vi + 81. \$1.25.

By A. A. ROBACK

Emerson College

IN THE present account of the Clark University Conference on Expressive Behavior the eight papers represent the points of view of a philosopher, two linguists, four psychologists, and a psychiatrist. The editor's purpose seems to have been to strengthen the thesis that language is not merely communicative. He posits two distinct modes of perception: the geometrico-technical and the physiognomic. The former is the realistic approach that prevails in science and is in vogue generally, while the physiognomic mode transcends the dichotomy between the cognitive and emotional, between the human and inanimate. According to the physiognomic mode, lifeless objects may be invested with personal qualities, a process that involves an organic orientation as well as an atmospheric determination, as when, for example, Tshimschian Indians regard thimbles and deer hoofs as identical because the two have the same ceremonial function.

As a sample of concrete dynamics, Werner adduces an experiment in which luminescent words indicating an upward direction (*rising, climbing*) presented in a dark room at eye-level were perceived as above eye-level, whereas those connoting *falling* were seen as below. The atmospheric nature of language is brought out further in this book by Bernard Kaplan through a series of experiments with words like *velvet* which have different importance in prose and poetic contexts. While these experiments are suggestive, it seems that there are altogether too many data difficult to coordinate and evaluate because of the plethora of variables.

S. Asch found that it made a difference to designate a person as *warm* or *cold* for two groups who had been told the same things about the individual otherwise. Hence he concluded that certain generalities play a central role in

determining attitudes toward the other traits. Since many terms possess a dual function, viz., a physical and psychological, he drew up a list of words like *right* and *left*, *dull* and *bright*, *hard* and *soft*, and asked specialists in languages remote from one another geographically and temporally to report on the semantics of these words in Hebrew, Greek, Chinese, Thai, Malaylam, and Hausa. The conclusion is that there is a universal tendency to associate *straight*, for instance, with *right*, *upright*, and *correct*, and *crooked* with *dishonest* and *evil-hearted*. Linguists like Reiffler and others proved it abundantly before. The analysis of the psychological process is what should be investigated.

HANS SPERBER is interested in the problem of irrationality in political language and propaganda. Why do so many voters allow themselves to be duped by slogans, rhymes, alliteration, etc.? In childhood, sound dominates sense, but the elders dictatorially suppress this preference. These experiences leave their mark on the child, apparently on his unconscious. When the propagandist comes along with his vociferation and rhyme without reason, the child awakens in the adult and pent-up complexes are released. Would it not be reasonable to argue that the silly slogans only re-enforce the original biases of the immature voter?

In *Expressive Aspects of Scientific Language*, J. K. Adams attempts to show that the "scientific language of a particular scientist expresses a great deal about his general orientation, including his values, attitudes, ways of perceiving, conceptualizing, dealing with the world." He concludes there can be no strict line separating expressive from scientific language, a conclusion which logical positivists and operationists will no doubt combat.

S. Arieti analyzes the sort of distorted statements that characterize the language of schizophrenia. An example is *the house burnt the cow horrendously always*. *House* is a substitute for the patient's mother. *Burnt* means badly cooked. *Cow* refers both to the meat and to the patient herself, and *horrendously*, a neologistic intensive of

horrendous, emphasizes the hostility between mother and daughter. Thus the sentence refers both to the horrible meals and to the frightful treatment that the patient received from her mother. In short, the schizophrenic communicates inadequately, but with patience we can still gain some idea of his subjective reality.

Roman Jakobson, although a linguist and not a pathologist or neurologist, has afforded us probably the most substantial paper in this symposium, dealing, as he does, with the speech of aphasics. It has been previously known that aphasic regression may invert the order of the original development of the speech system in the child: the first verbal habits to be acquired are the last to be impaired. But it has also been observed in clinical cases that lesions in the speech centers may make abstraction well nigh impossible. Jakobson, however, appears to be the first to distinguish two types of verbal difficulties in the aphasic: (1) similarity disturbances and (2) contiguity disturbances. Whereas the normal individual may use either metaphor or metonymy as he wishes, the aphasic is unipolar—he can use one or the other, but not both. The aphasic patient with a similarity disorder can combine words into a larger context, but he is not able to select similar words to substitute for the words he has used. The patient with a contiguity disorder has the reverse problem because he can see the similarities among smaller units but he does not know how to put them together in a longer utterance. Jakobson sees the two types even in normals with the similarity-centered type the dominant one (cf. the usage of simile and metonymy in literature).

In general, the symposium contains a number of provocative ideas, but the individual bibliographies stress only the writings of the authors themselves and their intellectual kin (teachers, students). Thus there are many gaps in the citation of other literature germane to the topic.



The purpose of psychology . . . is to understand man, not to manufacture him.

—MAURICE MANDELBAUM



FILMS

By ADOLPH MANOIL, Editor

In this issue CP continues the description of the films on Mental Health which it began in April, and also covers films on Deafness in Children, and the Retarded Child.

Mental Health

Roots of Happiness

Juan A. Pons, Viola Bernard, technical consultants; written by William Resnick; directed by Henwar Rodakiewicz. Sponsor: Puerto Rico Department of Health. Mental Health Film Board Films. Produced by Sun Dial Films. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 25 min., 1954. Available through International Film Bureau, 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. \$95.00.

Characteristic aspects of a happy family life, as experienced by an average home in the island of Puerto Rico, are clearly presented. The behavior of the father, who shows quiet confidence in life, the permissive atmosphere for the children, and the prevailing understanding among various members of the family are well illustrated.

Negative aspects of family life and the effect on children are also illustrated by the presentation of another family where anger, mistrust, and general dissatisfaction establish the prevailing mood.

The film emphasizes the value of home environment as a basic factor in mental health.

The atmosphere of the film and the simplicity of the characters portrayed should convey basic life values as ideal determiners of behavior and family relations. The respect for the individual needs, the feeling of acceptance and belongingness, and a quiet confidence in life are all basic conditions for the growth and development that are conducive to mental health.

The film should be effective with lay audiences, but also as a means for the analysis of interpersonal relations in their predominantly qualitative aspects.

Man to Man

Thomas A. C. Rennie and William F. Green, technical consultants. Written by Irving Jacoby and Jack Neher. Directed by Irving Jacoby. Sponsor: Michigan State Department of Mental Health, New Jersey Department of Institutions and agencies, and Alaska Department of Public Health. Produced by Affiliated Film Production. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 30 min., '54. Available through International Film Bureau, 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. \$125.00.

The work and the personal qualifications of the psychiatric aide in a mental hospital are dramatically presented.

Joe Fuller, a psychiatric aide, becomes personally involved in his work, and as a result is very effective in the treatment and cure of mental patients. His success illustrates the therapeutic value of patience, understanding, and affection in all relations with mental patients. Recognizing the patient's need for affection and understanding constitutes a basic requirement for effective work.

Inappropriate personality characteristics and negative results are demonstrated through the presentation of another psychiatric aide who is indifferent to his work and shows lack of understanding of the needs of the patients.

The importance of personal involvement in the work, the respect for the patient and the need for an understanding atmosphere are emphasized throughout the film.

The effectiveness of this film as a means of mass education in the field of mental health results from its use of empathy as the main process of communication. The behavior and philosophy of life of Joe Fuller as an effective psychiatric aide demonstrates a qualitative aspect of psychiatric work that cannot be analyzed in terms of techniques only. The interpersonal relationships and the degree of involvement in the work with others are to be understood as an attitude of the individual as a whole.

The atmosphere of the film and the

conduct of the psychiatric aide reflect the basic philosophy of client-centered therapy. At his level, Joe Fuller, the psychiatric aide, is a therapist, and his work is effective by virtue of its qualitative aspects rather than its techniques.

The film should be effective in the training of psychiatric aides and also as a demonstration of the relevance of human values in any interpersonal relations. As such, it could be used as a good teaching aid in classes in abnormal psychology and social psychology.

Hard Brought Up

Kate Shepherd and Morris Priebsch, technical advisers. Dwight Ferguson, consultant. Produced, written, and directed by Nicholas C. Read. Sponsor: Mississippi State Department of Welfare with the cooperation of the Children's Bureau of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. Potomac Film Producers, Inc. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 40 min., 1954. Available through Mental Health Materials Center, 1790 Broadway, New York 19, N.Y. \$150.00; rental \$8.00 per day, \$20.00 per week.

Various aspects of juvenile delinquency are dramatically presented. The film illustrates the function of the juvenile court, the work of child-welfare agencies, and especially the role of the social worker. Possible relationships between juvenile delinquency and socioeconomic conditions are also suggested. Different film sequences show two boys in their relation to their home environment, in their delinquent behavior, and in various situations resulting from court decisions and from social welfare activities. The film emphasizes the importance of a causal approach to delinquency, the need for a better understanding of child behavior, and the role being played by various social-welfare agencies, as symbolized by the child-welfare worker.

The film could be used profitably in general and social psychology classes for analysis and interpretation of juvenile delinquency and its sociocultural aspects.

The Mental Hospital Volunteer: Someone Who Cares

Beryl Blain and Warren D. Stevens, advisors; John Weigle, narrator; Bruce R. Buckley, Charles Bromley, Jerold Kemp, Wilbur Koontz, William Wheeler, members of production crew. Indiana University specialized Film Project. Produced for Indiana

Association for Mental Health. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 22 min., 1955. Available through Audio-Visual Center, Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind. \$90.00.

The problem of mental illness in our society and the function of volunteer workers in alleviating the condition of the mental patient are presented.

The film shows the plight of mental patients as related to overcrowded hospital facilities, the monotony of their lives, and their loss of contact with the outside world. These conditions could be greatly improved by the work of the mental-hospital volunteer. Through the activities of volunteers from all walks of life, the patient could regain contact with the world outside, achieve a certain measure of self-respect, and come to think of himself as a human being.

Various activities of volunteer workers, their orientation to the hospital, and their relationships with the patients are illustrated.

The film should promote understanding of the needs of the mental patient and stimulate greater community cooperation in improving their condition.

The Lonely Night

Thomas A. C. Rennie and Howard P. Rome, psychiatric consultants. Written and directed by Irving Jacoby. Photographed by Richard Leacock. Musical score by Mel Powell. Affiliated Film Production. 16-mm., motion picture film, black and white, sound, 62 min., 1954. Available through International Film Bureau, 57 E. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill., and The Mental Health Film Board, Inc., 166 E. 36th St., New York 16, N. Y. \$250.00; rental \$25.00.

This is a dramatic presentation of mental-health problems in terms of background experiences, prevention through healthful childhood experiences, psychiatric treatment, and general personality dynamics.

The film presents the case history of Caroline, including the genesis of her psychoneurosis, her psychiatric treatment, and the actual application of psychotherapy. It also shows for contrast the home life in another family (the Dunns') which provides for mental health through happy parental relationships and appropriate family life experiences for their children. The film emphasizes



PSYCHOTHERAPY

(From the film *The Lonely Night*. Mental Health Board Films.)

the importance of childhood experiences and the dynamics of personality development. The practice of psychotherapy and the genetic development of psychoneurosis are well illustrated.

This film could be used with classes in abnormal psychology as a means for the analysis and interpretation of various factors contributing to behavioral abnormalities. It provides adequate material for the clarification of basic mental-health principles as operating through various stages of individual development from childhood to adulthood. Dynamic aspects of behavior, of psychotherapy, and of life experiences in general could be analyzed within its particular theoretical assumptions.

The dramatic character of the whole film should appeal to lay audiences which, with the help of proper leadership, could gain insight into the meaning and nature of some behavioral deviations.

As a mental-health film, if supplemented with adequate expert interpretation and discussion, it should contribute

to a better understanding of contemporary views on psychiatric problems.

Nurse's Day with the Mentally

III

E. A. Hargrove and A. E. Bennett. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white or color, sound, 22 min., 1954. Available through Psychological Cinema Register, Audio-Visual Aids Library, The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Penna. Color 175.00, rental \$6.50; black and white \$94.50, rental \$3.75.

A student nurse is shown various activities that take place in a psychiatric hospital. Different film sequences demonstrate the handling of the patient, the role of the nurse both as helper to the doctor and as a comforting influence for the patient. The student nurse is faced with various patient reactions during and after treatment and is helped to understand the characteristic aspect of work in a psychiatric hospital.

The film emphasizes training of the

nurse through direct contact with different types of patients and treatment. Shock therapies, prefrontal lobotomy, narcoticsynthesis, use of curare in electroshock therapy, are all briefly exemplified. Examples of abnormal behavior, as well as indications as to occupational and recreational therapy, are also given.

The film, besides giving a general picture of a psychiatric hospital, represents also a useful vocational guidance tool. It could be used with nurses in training and also in classes in abnormal psychology as a means of information and a basis for discussion of psychiatric problems as related to the work of the nurse.

Farewell to Childhood

J. W. R. Norton, David Young, and John P. Lambert, technical consultants. Written by Frank Beckwith. Directed by Julian Roffman. Sponsor: North Carolina State Board of Health. Mental Health Board Films. Produced by Herbert Kerkow, Inc. 16-mm., motion picture film, black and white, sound, 23 min., 1953. Available through International Film Bureau, 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. \$95.00.

The problem of the adolescent need for independence and the resulting conflict with the parents is well illustrated.

Various film sequences show a girl as she begins to develop new interests and affections which are not understood by her parents. The conflict between the values held by the parents and her new needs results in tension and dissatisfaction. The parents, through the intermediary of the girl's teacher-adviser, come to realize the nature of the difficulty. This constitutes the basis for an adequate understanding, requiring sympathetic recognition of the girl's needs and proper parental adjustment to the situation.

The need for understanding and affection in handling adolescence problems is stressed throughout the film.

The film could be used for the analysis of characteristic problems of adolescence, with emphasis on family life and parent-adolescent relationships. It could also be used with lay audiences as a means for developing an awareness of behavioral aspects of the adolescent and of the resulting adjustment problems.

Differences in interests and values between parents and children require

mutual understanding and clear recognition of changing behavioral patterns, an understanding that should result in interpersonal relations conducive to mental health.

Working and Playing to Health

Alfred Paul Bay and Bertha Schlotter, technical consultants. Directed by Willard Van Dyke. Affiliated Film Production. 16-mm., motion picture film, black and white, sound, 35 min., 1954. Available through International Film Bureau, 57 East Jackson Blvd., Chicago 4, Ill. \$125.00.

Through the use of a play performed in the setting of a psychiatric hospital, various aspects of occupational, recreational, and industrial therapies are clearly presented. Different therapeutic problems raised at a staff meeting are played out by hospital personnel, including psychiatrists, therapists, and patients. Clay modeling, physical exercise, music, and work, as related to the needs of the patients, are illustrated.

The film emphasizes the need for understanding, patience, and affection for the patient. Each type of therapy, including work, should be adjusted to the particular needs of the patient.

The case of a withdrawn patient who uses his weaving work as a means to maintain a withdrawn attitude shows possible negative effects of therapy. The function of the therapist in such situations is also demonstrated, with emphasis on understanding and affection.

The film gives a comprehensive view of characteristic aspects of work in a modern psychiatric hospital.

The technique of presentation, and the use of actual patients within the hospital atmosphere, should facilitate insight into the contemporary approaches to the treatment and cure of mental illness. Used with classes in abnormal psychology or nurses in training, the film should allow for intelligent discussion of various approaches to treatment in terms of basic assumptions and evaluation of results. With lay audiences, the film should contribute to allaying fears of psychiatric hospitals and convey information as to available modern psychiatric facilities.

Some other 16-mm., black and white, sound films in the area of abnormal psychology, psychiatry and mental health. Short descriptions of these and other films are given in *Psychological Abstracts*.



THE ADOLESCENT GIRL ASSERTING HER INDEPENDENCE FROM HER PARENTS

(From the film *Farewell to Childhood*. Mental Health Film Board Films.)

Activity group therapy. Center for Mass Communication, Columbia University. 50 min., 1950.

Angry boy. Mental Health Film Board. 33 min., 1951.

Breakdown. National Film Board of Canada (NFBC). 40 min., 1951.

City of the sick. Oklahoma Dept. of Mental Health, 20 min., 1950.

Depressive states. I. NFBC, 12 min., 1951.

Depressive states II. NFBC, 11 min., 1951.

Emotional health. McGraw-Hill, 20 min., 1947.

Fears of children. Mental Health Film Board, 29 min., 1952.

Feelings of depression. NFBC, 32 min., 1950.

Feelings of rejection. NFBC, 21 min., 1947.

Folie a deux. NFBC, 15 min., 1951.

Manic state. NFBC, 15 min., 1951.

Organic reaction-type: senile. NFBC, 10 min., 1951.

Overdependency. NFBC, 32 min., 1949.

Palmour Street. Health Publication Institute, 25 min., 1950.

Paranoid conditions. NFBC, 13 min., 1951.

Preface to a life. United World Films. 29 min., 1950.

Schizophrenia: simple type deteriorated. NF Bc, 11 min., 1951.

Schizophrenia: catatonic type. NFBC, 12 min., 1951.

Schizophrenia: hebephrenic type. NFBC, 13 min., 1951.

The steps of age. Mental Health Film Board. 25 min., 1951.



Deafness in Children

Susan's Wonderful Adventure

The Clarke School for the Deaf, Northampton, Mass. 16-mm. motion picture film, color, sound, 30 min., 1955. Available through Educational Film Library, Syracuse University, Syracuse 10, N. Y. \$4.75 a day, \$6.75 for 5 days.

The problem of the deaf child and techniques used for his education are presented. The film shows lip-reading training, silent reading, writing, and speaking. The value of imitation of the teacher, the use of the mirror for the correction of pronunciation, the use of audiometer tests, and the employment of earphones for residual hearing are also demonstrated. Deafness is not only a medical problem but an educational one as well.

The film emphasizes the importance of group activities, indoor and outdoor play, and especially the need for understanding, patience and personal effort. The behavior of deaf children, their progress through school, and their general preparation for life are well demonstrated.

The film should be useful as an illustration of the work being done in a school for deaf children. It could also be used with lay audiences as a means of information as to the available modern school facilities for the training and re-education of the deaf child.

Thursday's Children

British Information Services. 16-mm., black and white, sound, 22 min., 1955. Available through British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, N. Y. \$55.00; rental \$2.00.

This is a documentary film on the training and teaching of deaf children, between four and seven years of age at the Norgate School for the Deaf in England.

Different film sequences show various techniques used for training in lip reading and speech. The film illustrates behavioral patterns and word learning characteristic of the deaf child as he passes through progressive stages in his training program. The educational program emphasizes the importance of individual participation in group learning activities and also the use of children's interest in games as a means for stimulating participation and permitting maximum individual effort. The need for individual attention is well demonstrated especially when the deaf child is taught to produce sounds he cannot hear.

The atmosphere of the school indicates the value of affection, the need for specialized work, and especially the stimulating effect of group activity.

The film could be used as a good demonstration for the teaching and training

of young deaf children. Classes in child psychology or for special teacher's training should profit from the showing of it.

The narration is adequate and is done by Richard Burton with particularly clear diction and effectiveness.

Retarded Child

A Class for Tommy

Curriculum Division, Los Angeles City Schools. 16-mm. motion picture film, black and white, sound, 20 min., 1952. Available through Bailey Films, Inc., 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, California. \$90.00; rental \$7.50.

Educational work with retarded children is clearly demonstrated through the presentation of Tommy, a retarded child, aged six. Tommy is shown in his various activities in school and at home.

The film demonstrates the importance of group work, encouragement, and understanding of the needs of the child.

The school provides conditions conducive to the development and use of the abilities these children have. Various film sequences show the importance of physical and psychological examinations. The educational value of different school situations, such as lunch, rest, play, and work, as well as the use of picture puzzles, clay, chalk, finger painting, and drawing as means of expression, are well illustrated. The need for well-trained personnel and cooperation with the family are emphasized. The educational work with retarded children should be viewed as a cooperative effort providing for favorable conditions at home and at school.

The film could be used with classes in child psychology and as a means for special teachers' training. Characteristic behavioral patterns of the retarded child, as presented, should allow for an analysis of basic assumptions of any educational program for handicapped children and for practical applications as well.



It is the customary fate of new truths to begin as heresies and to end as superstitions.

—T. H. HUXLEY



ON THE OTHER HAND . . .

As soon as CP got around to its subscribers, letters to this department began to come in, too many to print. Some of the letters complain because special features crowd out reviews. CP will accommodate by not printing those letters. Some policy needs, however, to be formulated for a start. So CP says that it will not print praise of itself except when it needs to print approval to offset disapprobation. It will, moreover, limit disapprobation of policy to 200 words per complaint and cut it even shorter when possible, but it will give more space to criticism of reviews and to discussion of psychology—give up to one page per critic if the Editor thinks the critic has done his best to be concise. Nor may, says CP, a criticism of a review ever be more than half as long as the review, nor a criticism of a criticism more than half as long as the criticism criticized, and so on to get convergence.

—E. G. B.



DISSENT FROM LOGAN

The review, in CP's January issue, by Frank Logan of Yale University, of Sigmund Koch's analysis of Hull in *Modern Learning Theory*, appears to the present writer as an astonishing distortion of what it seeks to represent. My initial impression that some specific inadequacies in Koch's analysis had been uncovered was dissipated as I checked each critical point of the review against the sections cited. I found myself convinced that every one of Logan's criticisms was based upon what seems to have been a misunderstanding or a distortion and that every one of his citations suffered from loss of essential context. Instances of the ways in which this criticism misconstrues the text upon which it is directed are presented below, and, within the space allowed, an attempt is made to clarify the individual points involved.

(A) There is an unfortunate shift of emphasis from the factual level to that of imputed motivation by Logan's repeated choice of non-objective verbs. In Logan's review Koch is rarely said to 'state'; instead he is said to "blame," "condemn," "charge," "repeatedly arraign," "misinterpret," "mislead," and so on.

(B) Essential distinctions are frequently blurred in a way which the reader could not possibly detect in the absence of the original text. The discussion repeatedly confuses rigor

and thoroughness of analysis with emotional bias. Moreover, judgments of the infeasibility of certain practices in the present stage of psychology are identified with a failure to accept the ultimate goals toward which they are directed. Thus, in one of Logan's major criticisms (p. 4), the brilliantly sustained and logically implacable character of the Kochian analysis of specific short-comings in very intricate sets of functional relationships (in my opinion unique in thoroughness and comprehensiveness in the history of psychological analysis) is dismissed as deriving from an alleged disagreement with Hull's most general aims.

(C) By faulty representation of the objectives of Koch's analysis, Logan has converted an endeavor, basically constructive for the science of psychology, into what appears as an exercise in destruction. His only characterization of Koch's objectives is contained in two casual phrases that Koch "makes a number of statements as to the deficiencies in [Hull's] theory and in Hull's general approach" (p. 5) and that Koch "uses his analysis to imply that he has somehow proved that Hull's general approach is wrong" (p. 4). The reader is urged to compare this statement with the first four and the last nine pages of Koch's chapter, of which the following quotations give some flavor.

"The present report . . . asks: *what kind of a theory can Hull be said to have; what are the orienting commitments and methods which underlie its construction; what is the degree of correspondence between Hull's theoretical objectives and the resulting theoretical structure?*" (p. 3).

"This analysis . . . has seemed a necessary job because of the paramount importance of *making explicit the limits within which it is feasible to aim for theory in the current phase of psychology*" (p. 160, italics mine).

"We have gone on the assumption that an essay towards theory so ambitious and influential as Hull's, might provide a strategic vehicle for the exhibition . . . of a wide range of methodological problems which stand between the desire for theory and its achievement. That Hull fell short of theory is not particularly instructive; that Hull fell short of theory in such-and-such specific ways could well be as instructive as anything that our generation needs to learn. No recent theoretical formulation can be more instructive in this sense than Hull's, because none has been

modeled on so explicit and, in some ways, sophisticated a conception of theory" (p. 161).

"Yet, one must be careful to distinguish the senses in which Hull's methodological manifesto to the future is usable, and the senses in which it is not. The entire present report may be regarded as an essay towards this task" (p. 162).

Logan's central criticism (pp. 3f.) is that, because Koch "recognizes Hull's many contributions," but nevertheless concludes that the theory is indeterminate as a hypothetico-deductive structure, a "paradox" has arisen, one that is not "adequately resolved." Compare this criticism with the quotations in the preceding paragraphs and with the 159 pages of analysis that led up to them! Were Logan's "paradox" genuine, Koch's entire analysis might be characterized as its liquidation.

In a single paragraph of "more detailed criticism" (p. 5), Logan presents a list of points which seem, to the present writer, astounding in the remoteness of their relation to Koch's text. Here are six instances:

(1) Logan (item f) deals with some thirty pages of analysis (pp. 110-141) which attributes the failure of Hull's final quantification methodology to a group of inadequacies—some logical, some mathematical, some empirical—by a reference to the single factor of "paucity of data."

(2) Koch does not (item d) "criticize Hull for one behavior and also . . . for the opposite"—with reference to Hull's utilization of "rational" and "empirical" components in his methods of function construction. On the contrary, Koch identifies, as against popular impression, Hull's over-all procedures as rational, but he develops evidence that Hull did not show a consistent appreciation of the interplay between the rational and inductive aspects of his methods. (Cf. pp. 66f., 72-81, 112-122.)

(3) According to item (c), "Koch blames Hull" for inability to identify "all of the determining variables" of his theory. The cited passage (p. 54), however, and a paragraph on the preceding page, explicitly raise the possibility that this is due to limitations "in the present state of empirical knowledge" (p. 54), "rather than [constituting] an indictment of Hull" (p. 53).

(4) The only cited instance of Logan's assertion that "Koch makes some false statements" (item h) is itself an incorrect statement. (Check through Hull's *Essentials*!)

(5) On page 121, cited in support of Logan's critical item (g), the present writer can find nothing relevant.

(6) In so far as page 136, cited in support of item (a), seems at all relevant to Logan's point, it asserts the opposite of what he says it does.

Logan's final word of warning deserves

examination. "Some of these statements are correct," Logan says, "some incorrect; but all [italics mine] must be tempered jointly by . . . and by the fact that Koch disagrees with . . . [the Hullian] program" (p. 5). Apparently Logan feels that the reader should discount Koch even when Logan believes Koch is correct.

The reviewer's remaining major criticism brings very sharply into focus the problem

of reviewer responsibility which I find raised by most points in his review. He asserts (p. 4) that Koch overstates a "systematic ambiguity" that he says Koch "finds" in two statements of Hull's on the definition of *stimulus*. "Surely," says Logan, "the first tentative approximations of a theory deserves a gracious, and at times generous, reading. Actually, Hull's second expression should be taken, not as inconsistent with, but as an elaboration of, the first" (p. 4). Inspection of

Koch's report, however, shows that what Logan calls "Hull's second expression" is not what Hull has said, but rather is Koch's description of what in practice Hull has done but failed to say. Logan's "gracious . . . reading" of Koch's text does not prevent his failure to discriminate which are Koch's and which Hull's statements.

KARL ZENER
Duke University

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